

JOURNAL

of the

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION
of COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS



JANUARY, 1946

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JOURNAL *of the* JANUARY, 1946

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION *of* COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

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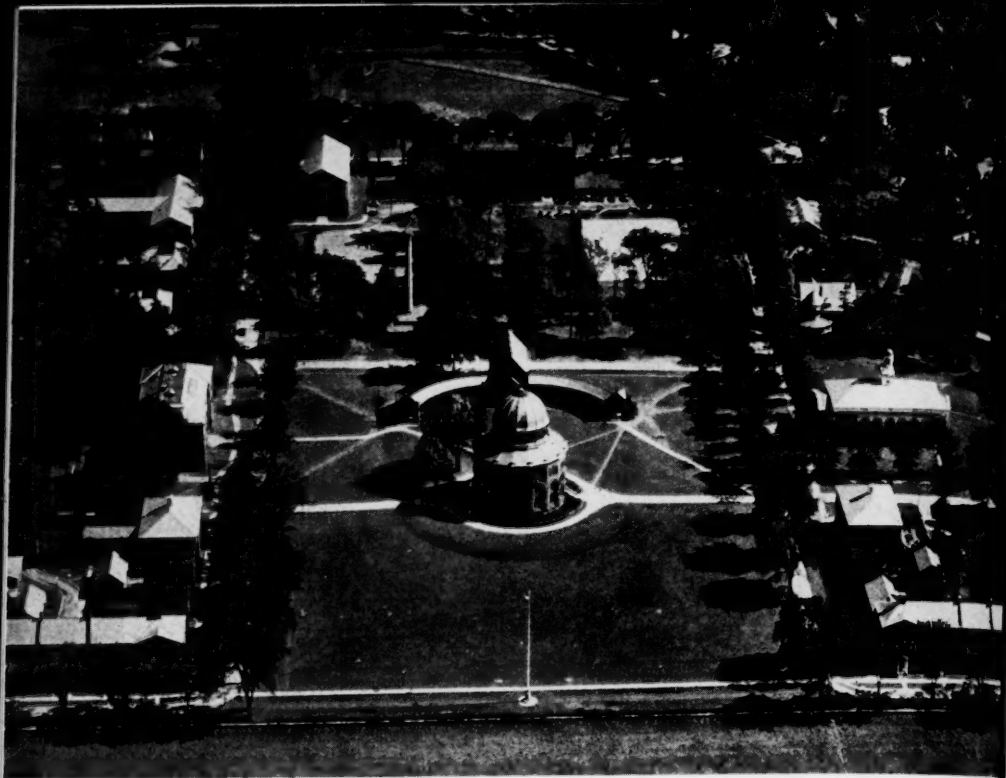
UNION COLLEGE in Schenectady, New York was chartered on February 25, 1795, in response to petitions from nearly a thousand inhabitants of the Albany region which had begun in 1779. To signalize the wide basis of the demand for higher education, welling up from men of all churches, circumstances, and racial stocks, it was given the name of Union.

Under the sixty-two year presidency of Dr. Eliphalet Nott, it not only moved into the first architecturally planned campus in America, the work of the noted French architect Joseph Jacques Ramée, but it also became "the Mother of Fraternities" through the founding of Kappa Alpha in 1825, Sigma Phi and Delta Phi in 1827, Psi Upsilon in 1833, Chi Psi in 1841, and Theta Delta Chi in 1847.

In 1828 Dr. Nott introduced a literary-scientific course as an alternative to the classics, and in 1845 an engineering course in connection with the work in liberal arts, a tradition at Union which has continued to this day. Union boasts among its graduates a President of the United States, seven cabinet members, fifteen Senators, nearly one hundred Congressmen, and dozens of pioneer scientists, engineers, missionaries, and other civic leaders.

During World War II, its Navy V-12 unit has sent over a thousand men into active duty to join the 2,500 of its alumni already in service. A men's undergraduate college which seeks a balanced emphasis on both the liberal arts on the one hand and science and technology on the other, Union has a normal enrollment of 800 students.

Its Sesquicentennial was celebrated on September 15, 1945 in a novel manner by a documentary and dramatic radio program on the NBC network entitled "150 Years of Union" and written by William Ford Manley.



Above: UNION COLLEGE CAMPUS FROM THE AIR

Below: SOUTH COLLEGE, BUILT IN



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The Purposes of General Education

EARL J. McGRATH

GENERAL education is the most prominent subject in contemporary educational literature. It is a rare issue of an educational journal which does not deal with some aspect of this subject. Many college faculties are attempting to broaden the aims and content of the curriculum with the purpose of gearing it more closely to the everyday lives of students. One who observes this fermentation of ideas is impressed with the earnestness with which educational institutions are trying to elevate the general intelligence of our people in order that they may be better able to come to grips with the trying problems of our age.

An examination of current treatises on general education and the new programs announced by many colleges reveals an arresting emphasis on the factual content of instruction. The ends of general education are commonly defined in the tangible terms of existing bodies of subject matter rather than in terms of the behavioral consequences of education. So many hours of this subject or that which in the aggregate cover the college curriculum are prescribed as the catholicon for international conflict, political corruption, social inequities, and personal unhappiness. To be sure some of the recently announced programs of general education include courses in ethics for the moral regeneration of youth and courses in logic and science for the cultivation of the processes of abstract thinking, but these subjects customarily make up only a small part of the total program,

and their treatment separate from the other subject matter reveals the fact that educators are not conscious of the relationship between knowledge on the one hand and wisdom and virtue on the other. Knowledge is presumably acquired in fifteen or sixteen diversified courses; wisdom and virtue in two.

It must be admitted that general education should provide essential knowledge about the physical world, about the human beings and other animal life which inhabits this globe, and about the methodology employed in the various disciplines to extend this knowledge. But it should also cultivate in students the intellectual processes of logical reasoning, inference, generalization, and reflective thinking. It must also assist students in deriving a set of ethical principles for themselves which will give direction to their lives and provide the basis for a moral evaluation of their own behavior and that of their contemporaries.

The first of these objectives, that of making available the knowledge essential to an understanding of and a satisfactory adjustment to the physical and social world, has in recent years persistently engaged the attention of college faculties. Confused by the number and complexity of the problems of modern life, and alarmed at the ineptitude and aimlessness with which our people have attempted to meet them, educators have enlarged the scope of college instruction to bring it nearer to the everyday life of the average man. Some institutions have expected students to become familiar with the elementary subject matter in all the major divisions of knowledge, an objective commonly achieved by requiring students to complete a number of general courses such as a survey of the physical sciences containing subject matter chosen from the fields of physics, chemistry, astronomy, and geology. Other institutions have sought to accomplish the same purpose by requiring students to select a specified number of courses from among the more conventional offerings of various departments.

Though this discussion is concerned primarily with the purposes of general education, a brief examination of the means employed to achieve these major objectives may shed some light on their validity. The aim of some institutions to have their students gain at least an elementary knowledge of all the disciplines commonly represented in the curriculum of the liberal arts college by studying a specified number of survey courses requires evaluation in terms of the larger

purposes of education and the principles of modern psychology. That all students should study more representative subject matter than commonly made up the curriculum under the free elective or major system can hardly be denied. Students whose college program under such a system was composed of courses chosen almost exclusively from one division of knowledge, such as the physical sciences, could scarcely be said to have had a satisfactory education. But it is not necessary to flee from this extreme of narrow specialization to the other extreme of the indiscriminate sampling of all varieties of knowledge. Breadth can be gained more satisfactorily by reducing the specialized information in the fundamental courses in each field and by restricting the number of courses a student may elect in any one department or division. In the days of Quintillian it may have been possible for the educated man to master all extant learning, but however defensible in theory the ideal may be, it is unattainable today.

A college program composed of properly constituted introductory courses in the various fields of knowledge and related closely to the activities and experiences of everyday life should give the student a sufficiently broad general education. By taking at least one course in the various disciplines such as the social sciences, the physical sciences, the biological sciences, the humanities, and the fine arts he would become familiar with the peculiar intellectual methodology of each of these fields while at the same time acquiring a knowledge of the general facts and principles of use to the average American citizen. He should then be encouraged to extend the scope of his general education by electing additional introductory courses in other fields, his elections being guided by his own peculiar interests, abilities, and vocational objectives. To aim at more than this is unrealistic. It is not possible for the average student to cover all the various disciplines which now compose the offerings of liberal arts colleges. Nor is it necessary, for human beings, properly taught, learn to generalize their experience and therefore do not require all the detailed knowledge relevant to the infinite variety of problems they will face in later life.

The assimilation of large bodies of information is no satisfactory substitute for experience with the processes of critical and reflective thinking. Those who have responsibility for determining the purposes of general education would do well to remember the statement of

Alfred North Whitehead that "the merely well-informed man is the most useless bore on God's earth." The cultivation of the capacity to see facts in relation to one another and to the problems of everyday life is a more appropriate activity for a college than serving as an academic filling station. Though the content of general education may vary from college to college there is less danger that this purpose of general education,—namely that of supplying the future citizen with a body of usable information—will be neglected, than that other goals will be overlooked or inadequately considered.

Colleges should have as their foremost aim the cultivation of the intellectual processes involved in critical, imaginative, and logical thought. Current college catalogues reveal that this objective of general education often occupies only an inconspicuous place in the total educational program. No doubt, even in those courses where the cultivation of the intellectual virtues, to use Mr. Hutchins' phrase, is not explicitly set forth as an aim of instruction, students do acquire habits of reflective thinking. Indeed, some students will develop intellectually even in the absence of encouragement or stimulation. But an aim of higher education of such crucial significance cannot be left to accident or student initiative.

Any discussion of the cultivation of the higher mental processes must take several findings of modern psychology into consideration. Educational research has shown that students quickly forget much of the knowledge they learn. Greene found, for example, that students who had successfully completed a college course in one academic year had by the beginning of the next year forgotten about half of what they knew a few months earlier—findings which have been confirmed in studies by Tyler and others. These investigations, of course, only give quantitative validation to the common-sense observation of college graduates that several years after they leave their alma mater they are able to recall only a small percentage of what they once knew. One of these studies, however, attempted to determine the characteristics of the residues of instruction. The results showed that single, isolated bits of factual information were quickly forgotten, but generalizations and principles were retained nearly perfectly, especially if they had been used in problem solving.¹ In other words, the higher order of intellectual processes involved

¹ Judd, Charles H., *Education as the Cultivation of the Higher Mental Processes*, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1936, pp. 6-17.

in thinking remained after the facts on which they were based had been forgotten.

A second finding of modern psychology is concerned with the transfer of training. In simple terms, this problem may be stated in the form of a question. Can the outcomes of learning in one situation be generalized in such a manner as to be applied to another situation which, though somewhat similar to the original, varies from it in certain respects? When applied to a concrete situation the question becomes: Will the student who has learned critical and detached habits of thinking employed in the investigation of a problem in the chemistry laboratory, such as careful selection and examination of relevant facts, critical evaluation of data, and restraint in judgment in drawing conclusions, exercise these same habits when approaching a social problem involving different data? Without attempting a review of the pertinent psychological evidence, the question can be answered in the affirmative. These abilities to generalize experience can be learned.

But it has also been shown that this process of transfer is by no means automatic. It is not enough, therefore, to state that cultivation of clarity of thought and critical judgment is one of the aims of instruction. That aim, if it is to be realized, must become an integral part of the everyday procedures of the classroom. Both the teacher and the student must be constantly aware of the objective.

If the colleges are to make their largest contribution in preparing young people to deal intelligently with the numerous and varied problems of life, they must do more than supply the student with the facts related to these problems; for the facts change with every discovery of new knowledge, and the student soon forgets a large part of the detailed knowledge he once possessed. Students must acquire the habit of seeking meaningful relationships through valid processes of reasoning. Some institutions have attempted to achieve this objective by requiring all students to take one or more courses in formal logic. Such instruction may lead to an understanding of the methods by which the human mind reasons, but it no more guarantees detached, critical, analytical, and creative thinking than the required study of physical science automatically produces the habit of approaching social problems with a scientific point of view, or the required study of the Bible produces a religious outlook on life.

If students are to acquire the habits of thought which characterize a liberally educated mind free from prejudice, passion, and ignorance, this objective must be central in any program of general education. It must be the responsibility not of one but of all departments and must be explicitly stated as a goal of instruction. It will not suffice to have the student observe Pasteur's experiment with putrescible liquids demonstrating that life does not appear spontaneously but is reproduced according to certain biological laws. The student must see that Pasteur employed certain intellectual processes of inductive thinking and, further, that this same methodology can and should be employed with the infinite problems of life outside the classroom or the laboratory.

Each discipline has methodological features in common with all others, and some peculiar to its own material. The fine arts and the physical sciences, for example, employ different approaches to the data of life. It is important that the peculiar intellectual techniques employed by the various disciplines in arriving at truth be understood and used by the student. The capacity for vicariousness may be a desirable trait, but if depended upon excessively in education it makes the learning process unreal, and the results unsubstantial and ephemeral. The student must participate intelligently in the learning process if he is to learn to participate intelligently in life.

If colleges really attempted to achieve this aim of cultivating the higher mental processes, profound changes in the curriculum and particularly in teaching methodology would occur. In their instruction teachers would require the mastery of large generalizations and the use of the intellectual processes by which such generalizations are derived, rather than the memorization of factual information. Effort would be made to stimulate independence of thought and intellectual resourcefulness. Instead of striving to provide the student with every conceivable bit of information he could possibly need in later life, an attempt would be made to introduce him to a few subjects representative of the various intellectual methodologies men have employed to understand the world. His further learning would be left to his own efforts, the direction and intensity of study being determined by the circumstances he finds himself in, and the peculiar balance of his talents and interests. Teaching methods would place more responsibility upon the student and would sacrifice subject matter to a thorough mastery of the habits of intellectual workmanship. Students who had had such intellectual experiences might very

well possess less comprehensive knowledge on graduation day, though this is by no means certain, but in any event they would possess more wisdom. It is more important that they should be wise than that they should be learned. As Cowper remarked, "Knowledge dwells in heads replete with thoughts of other men, wisdom in minds attentive to their own." Any program of general education must produce not only informed, but thoughtful men and women.

Even if a program of general education succeeds in these two aims and sends the student away with the body of knowledge and the intellectual abilities essential to a satisfying and socially useful life, one important objective in his education has not yet been reached. He may have the intellectual resources to recognize the good life, but unfortunately intelligence and goodness are not invariable concomitants. In the words of President Wriston, "The feelings of most people are both more intense and more influential upon their lives than are their thoughts. The great dilemmas of our time are not so much intellectual as moral. Not infrequently the minds of men perceive the path but the wills of men refuse to walk thereon."

Most American colleges were established by religious denominations for the perpetuation of a learned ministry and for the indoctrination of young members of the church in a particular theology. Classroom instruction in the formal aspects of religion was supplemented by character education through the informal experiences of college life in an institution with Christian ideals. Though instruction was colored with denominational practices and doctrines, a common set of Christian precepts and ideals formed a powerful force in the formation of character. One who examines early college catalogues, even those issued in the closing decades of the nineteenth century, will be impressed with the uniform concern of these institutions with the moral growth of their students. Even in nonsectarian institutions such as state universities in which no particular religious doctrine could be propagated, the atmosphere of the classroom and the campus was suffused with the moral precepts of the Christian church.

In this respect the majority of campuses today present an arresting contrast to earlier academic communities. Secularism has become the order of the day and, even in institutions which still maintain a formal church relationship, religion occupies a far less prominent place in the lives and the thinking of students than it did a few decades ago.

Many forces conspired to bring this change about, among which one of the most important was the influence of the German univer-

sity. The prevailing atmosphere in the German university of the nineteenth century was scientific. Science became not only a method for analyzing the world and extending the boundaries of knowledge; it became a way of life. Its methodology was applied not only to the physical world, but also to literature, human thought, and even Biblical criticism.

This scientific movement had two effects germane to a discussion of the purposes of general education. The rationalistic philosophy of scientific method led to scepticism and cynicism with regard to spiritual values and moral ideas formerly accepted without question. Many firmly established religious doctrines melted away under the heat of scientific investigations—and with them often went principles of justice, right, decency, and honesty that had been assumed to be eternal and immutable.

A second change occurred in the nature and purposes of higher institutions. In the citadel of learning the hunt for new knowledge replaced teaching. Now the academic man became absorbed in research often to the neglect of the student, for whom the college existed. The instructor became less and less concerned with the meaning and application of the materials of instruction. It became more important to reveal to the student the ecstatic satisfaction of pursuing an adverb in a classical language as it was modified through a score of manuscripts, than to point out the human significance of the thoughts expressed in the treatises under consideration. Reason reigned supreme; feeling became the pariah of higher learning.

Those who have spent their lives in academic institutions since the First World War and have read the literature of higher education will recall how infrequently the moral and social significance of the content of instruction was discussed. Professors lifted a quizzical eyebrow at the efforts of organizations of teachers in the lower schools to perfect a system of character education. When occasionally a bold clerical educator called the attention of his secular colleagues to the amoral character of higher education his listeners sat in polite silence with the hope that the speaker would not talk too long and thus hold up the more important paper to follow, on the fears which disturb high school teachers, in which it was revealed that of 100 things of which teachers were afraid snakes ranked 17th, only one point above the fear of stepping into empty post-holes.

In view of our intellectual history of the past fifty years it is not

surprising that we know more about the physical universe and the human beings who inhabit it than earlier generations. It is also not surprising that we are incapable of using this vast storehouse of information in the solution of the myriad problems which beset us. Mr. Hutchins rightly declares: "The great problem of our time is moral, intellectual, and spiritual. With a superfluity of goods we are sinking into poverty. With a multitude of gadgets we are no happier than we were before. With a declining death rate we have yet to discover what to do with our lives. With a hatred of war we are now deeply engaged in the greatest war in history. With a love of liberty we see much of the world in chains."²

Higher education, if it is to fulfill its proper function in the turbulent, frustrating, and disillusioning years ahead, must assist youth in arriving at a set of ethical principles for the integration of their emotional and intellectual life and on the basis of which political, social and moral issues can be decided. A return to the preaching of fire and brimstone will not appeal to the youth of America. Moral ideals which seem academic and unrelated to the problems they face in their daily lives will not excite their interest or command their devotion. President Henderson of Antioch, in his book *Vitalizing Liberal Education*, sets forth in convincing language the importance of including in the experience of the college student not only a study of moral principles, but opportunity for their practical application in the everyday life of the campus.

"There will be no difference of opinion, for instance, over the proposal that in the classroom the abstract idea of justice should receive speculative consideration. And it will be agreed that a student will emerge from the classroom with some new and stimulating ideas. But it should be recognized that for him the idea will remain abstract and nebulous, or become concrete and pertinent to life, in proportion as it is illustrated by tangible experiences in his own life. The final objective of a liberal education, for example, is not learning what Plato meant by justice, but rather utilizing Plato's definition and any other relevant ideas—determining what justice should mean today and learning how to make it a living reality."³

Like the intellectual virtues, the moral virtues cannot be cultivated

² Robert M. Hutchins, *Education for Freedom*, Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1943, p. 92.

³ Algo D. Henderson, *Vitalizing Liberal Education*, New York: Harper and Bros., 1944, pp. 149-150.

in a single course. The formal study of ethics and religion, or lectures on how to be kind to your neighbor, will not by themselves engender high ethical standards. An "Emily Post" for moral conduct will not succeed in producing just, decent, and humane men and women. Spiritual and moral values must be related to all the subject matter of instruction. As Seneca pointed out centuries ago in complaint against contemporary teachers, the entire curriculum must be invested with moral quality. "The grammarian busies himself with investigations into language, and if it be his desire to go farther afield, he works on history, or, if he would extend his range to the farthest limits, on poetry. But which of these paves the way to virtue? . . . The mathematician teaches me how to lay out the dimensions of my estates: but I should rather he taught how to lay out what is enough for a man to own."

It is no less important for the modern teacher to emphasize moral concepts. In discussing poverty it will not be enough for the sociologist to cite statistical facts about the variation in the incidence of poverty in different sections of the country, the relation between intelligence and poverty, and race and poverty. To the inquisitive mind these are all very interesting facts. But the conscientious and thoughtful person is interested in more important issues, such as those involved in questions like the following: Why do poverty and riches exist side by side? Can a country in which justice is supposed to prevail condone poverty? What are the moral consequences of poverty? What political actions can be taken to eliminate the pathology of poverty from the body politic? These are the questions which are or should be of vital concern to graduates of our colleges. These issues and the concrete problems related to them must be the urgent concern of all people if the lot of mankind is to be improved. Unless the colleges of the country make a real effort to cultivate the moral principles on which sound judgments rest they will be derelict in their responsibility to the youth of the nation—and they will lose their vitality and their influence as social institutions.

These, then, are the three general purposes which should animate general education. All institutions of higher education tacitly agree on these goals. But many faculties which have professed their allegiance to such purposes in high sounding phrases continue to give the same instruction they offered a decade ago. A body of information often erroneously considered "our cultural heritage," is passed on to

one generation of students after another and the responsibility of the institution is considered to have been discharged. The priceless heritage which we defended in bloody conflict consists of attitudes, ideals, and spiritual values which cannot be acquired merely by assimilating a body of factual information. The teaching of ideals of thought and conduct is much more difficult than teaching scientific formulae and dates of historical significance. It requires a much more analytical appraisal of the character and the purposes of the individual student. It presupposes the teacher's interest in the intellectual and moral growth of other human beings. It requires persistent reflection on the meaning of life and the significance of the physical and social forces playing upon it today. It requires a broad cultural education involving a sensitivity to and an appreciation of the highest values of our Western European culture. It requires a reorientation of general education toward wisdom and virtue. These more important and intangible purposes of general education deserve the earnest consideration of the groups of men and women who have responsibility for the education of this generation of American youth.

Needed: A Dean of Instruction and a Student-Faculty Reaction Sheet

FRANZ SCHNEIDER

HOWEVER trite and hackneyed it may sound, analogous to the saying "The Home is the Backbone of the Nation," it is true, nevertheless, that only through *education*, through an ever better kind of education, will mankind grow into higher concepts of human dignity and ever more generous co-operation. There is no other profession in our social order which is specifically charged with these tasks and which has such wide opportunities for bringing this about—if we get the right kind of teachers. High-minded and generous-hearted influences radiating from thousands of our schools and colleges would, in time, certainly make the tenor of our social behavior, whether in the home, in shop or factory, or on the highways and byways, less mean and selfish, less crude and callous than it is at present. Politics, too, would then cease to be the coldly calculating, often sordid game which it is now, eating out the very heart of any faith in political honesty and fair-dealing. The relations of the men who make up capital and labor would likewise undergo a change for the better, because these men when youngsters at school would have had teachers who showed by their own daily conduct toward them that reasonableness and a living sense of justice are not chimeras, but are realities that can be practiced in man's dealing with man.

Ultimately even wars will be averted because we shall have gained an understanding of the forces that cause them and will know how to combat them.

The preliminary work of bringing about this much-longed-for state of human affairs lies in the hands of the nation's teachers, the more so because the home is, at present, in too many cases no longer a help.

The quest for better teachers and better teaching immediately brings us face to face with the confused, if not corrupted, sense of values that pervades the nation everywhere. For is it not the grossest perversion that, on the one hand, we toss high public honors and fabulous sums of money into the laps of people who at best are

clever clowns and who at worst actually debauch the tastes of our people, whereas on the other hand, we pay shabbily in public esteem and in money those whose lot it is to civilize the often spoiled or basely neglected offspring of our society?

Our friends, the Communists, declare that this glaring shameful-ness exemplifies the natural "amorality" of capitalistic society, and that no tinkering can make it "moral"; only the system's complete destruction, they aver, will do away with such ruthless perversion of common sense and human values. Their reasons are cogent, and they may be right. We are still hopeful, however, that the old order can be saved by improving it, for it is not without its merits.

A mincing of words, however, or mere frothy generalities will not stave off the day of reckoning that is drawing nigh. Only courageous action can possibly save us. We must be as fearless and determined in tackling this task as a soldier is expected to be when sent into battle to save his nation. To do less means to betray the living and the dead.

A keen awareness that something should long ago have been begun in our academic circles to quicken their sense of social responsibility, prompted me, over a decade ago, to plead in print.¹ I quote two passages:

"The scholar with teaching duties in a tax-supported institution accepts money under false pretenses, if his social philosophy does not prompt him to assume definite personal responsibility for the conditions of the society of his day. Scholarship alone is not enough.

"What a sorry spectacle to see the Wagners of philological research sit in judgement over the Fausts! And so powerfully entrenched! So strongly are they protected by their overrated scholastic productions and the etiquette of their group that no one may come to the relief of their victims! . . . Scholarship, what sins against the young and the future are committed in thy name!"

This plea was continued a few years later in a booklet² printed at my own expense, since articles of the same tenor had constantly been

¹"The Scholar and Society: Reactions and Reflections," *School and Society*, Vol. 38, No. 971, August 5, 1933.

²*Teaching and Scholarship & the Res publica*, Pestalozzi Press, Berkeley, 1938. Chapter IV, "The Scientist and Our Social Problems," warned against our blind folly in paying "science" and "scientists" such abject and worshipful respect while neglecting, if not ridiculing, the spiritual side of man and the cultivation of civic courage, which alone can build a well integrated society of free men and women.

PESTALOZZI REACTION SCALE

Date.....

INSTRUCTOR COURSE SECTION LEADER
(Cross out if there is none)

STUDENT'S MAJOR COLLEGE YEAR

Check wherever the items apply to your particular course:

A-1) LECTURE COURSE

a) Lectures:

Well organized ☐ Forceful ☐ Too simple ☐ Indefinite ☐ Confusing ☐b) Discussion—in lecture hour? ☐ or in section? ☐Welcomes difference ☐ Stimulating ☐ Monopolizes ☐ Intolerant ☐c) Reading Assignments: Very fair ☐ Too little ☐ Excessive ☐ Unreasonable ☐

B) WORK AND ATTITUDE IN CLASS:

a) Attitude in class:

Systematic ☐ Alive ☐ Slow ☐ Impatient ☐ Unsystematic ☐b) Homework: Very fair ☐ Not enough ☐ Rather stiff ☐ Unreasonable ☐c) Textbooks: Stimulate ☐ Fair ☐ Too easy ☐ Trite ☐ Too difficult ☐

B) EXAMINATIONS a) Check which type was given. b) Underline which you prefer

Essay type ☐ True-false ☐ Other objective tests ☐ Problems ☐Free composition ☐ Translation ☐ Grammar sentences ☐ Dictation ☐Fair and thoughtful ☐ Too long ☐ Ambiguous ☐ Tricky ☐C) STIMULATION OF INTEREST Nature of course does not permit ☐Stimulates interest ☐ Destroys interest ☐ Indifferent ☐

This reaction scale is intended primarily for LIBERAL ARTS COURSES where the quickening of the students' sensibilities toward a broad concept of justice, cooperative understanding, and responsible democratic methods should be consciously developed. "What we wish to see established in the nation, we must first establish in our schools." "It is a greater virtue to be just than to be right"—which applies to teacher and student alike.

NOTE: Use other side for general comments regarding social content of the course, the amount of term papers, reports, discipline, bias in grading, etc. (March 1939)

returned, for one reason or another, by the educational journals and bulletins to which they had been submitted for publication.*

The reception of this little book by liberal educators was gratify-

* *School and Society* makes a notable exception. In Vol. 35, No. 898, March 12, 1932, it published an outspoken article by me entitled "The Liberal Arts College and Society."

ing. The students, too, rallied around it because it gave them hope that something would now be done to improve the conditions under which they had been chafing. So, with the help of a live and interested group from their ranks, a campus campaign was carried out in the spring of 1939 through the distribution of a simple form of student-faculty reaction sheet (§3 Pestalozzi Reaction Scale).

A report of this campaign, which netted over 1,600 returns, was published in a pamphlet entitled *Students Examine Their Professors: A Student-Reaction Plan at Work*.³

In the spring of 1940 a similar campaign was undertaken with the loyal help of another group, and over 4,000 reaction sheets were filled out by students, eager to become articulate about their courses and their teachers. An account of these returns as well as an account of the means employed by the opposition to stop these experiments was given in the early part of this year in the book *More than an Academic⁴ Question—Needed: A Dean of Instruction and the Use of a Student-Faculty Reaction Sheet*.⁵ In its 138 pages there is submitted an abundance of material bearing upon the lethargy, if not hostility, which attempts at reform encounter in *Academia*; it also contains twenty different forms of Student-Faculty Reaction Sheets used in various parts of the country, thus making it a kind of handbook for those willing to try the plan in their own schools or classes.⁶

The basic pleas and arguments for the creation of the office of a Dean of Instruction as the Protector and Defender of the Public Interest, supported by the information coming to him through Student-Faculty Reaction Sheets, I summarized previously in a circular letter to the members of our Academic Senate, under date of December 7, 1944. Although this letter is addressed to an academic group in a specific locality, the matter with which it deals is generally applicable anywhere in the United States, save in the classrooms and lecture halls of a relatively small number of superior men and women. These few, however, are not enough to stir and to improve the thinking of millions of our people. We need thousands of such.

Here is the letter in part:

³ Pestalozzi Press, Berkeley, California, 1939.

⁴ Is it not an outright indictment of our liberal arts colleges that the non-academic world labels as "academic" any discussion which seems to lead nowhere, thus making the term "academic" imply a waste of time and effort?

⁵ Pestalozzi Press, Berkeley, California, 1945.

⁶ A sample set of nine different forms may be had from the Pestalozzi Press, 1114 Euclid Avenue, Berkeley 8, California, at 60¢ the set, postpaid.

"Our present attempts at academic reform will fail because those sitting in our high academic councils lack the information necessary for effective action as well as the organization necessary for obtaining it.

This is due to the secrecy which surrounds all classroom activities, the product of an obsolete—and now very evil—"academic sovereignty." Although in centuries past the promulgators of this "academic sovereignty" high-mindedly fought at great personal risk against the encroachments of an absolutist dynastic State or a dogmatic authoritarian Church, or both, "academic sovereignty" now serves but too often as a protecting cloak for shabby indifference, brazen neglect, gross absurdities, and inexcusable dullness. The motley array of departments in the College of Letters and Science, with their frequent sorry lack of cohesion and common interests, only too readily fosters the growth of such conditions.

Our present attempts at reform will not be able to do more than put new labels on old bottles, as we have done before. That will not cure our ills. Our ills are deep-seated; they call for incisive measures undertaken in bitter earnest and with deep concern about the common weal.

Our first step in this needful undertaking must be to find out what we actually have in those various "bottles"; we must no longer depend on the legend of their labels. The result of this check may disclose that the contents in some of these bottles has turned sour or has lost its strength and all its savor. What folly it would be for our academic planners to assume in their paper calculations that this sort of contents can give rich nutriment to our students! Neither lofty official pronouncements by Administrators or by Deans, however sincere they be, nor any label, however well worded, can turn vinegar into wine! . . .

The quickest and surest means of throwing some light on the darkest spots would be the authorization of a *Student-Faculty Reaction Sheet* and the creation of the office of a *Dean of Instruction*, as its keeper. This Dean would simply personify the *Public Interest*. In this position he would protect the rights of Administrations and of Faculties, as well as the rights of students.

This Dean should be a faculty man, of course, because he must know young people, their strong points and their potential vagaries. His office, however, should be a full-time job, not a side-line: a big city cannot safely leave the responsibility of public health to its busy Mayor or a Fire Chief with important duties of his own; only a well-equipped and permanent Public Health Service can cope with a problem of such importance, a problem on which the health and safety of thousands depend. Moreover, this Dean should be a gentle and kindly

man, one ever ready to counsel and to help both young instructors—who are now left utterly unassisted—and students—who occasionally need training in ordinary good manners. He certainly should not be of the intellectual, self-righteous kind. . . .

The duties of such a Dean would be in a sense analogous to those of a *Director of Public Health* or the *Director of the Budget* or a *Federal Bank Examiner*. None of these officials has anything to report so long as everything functions as it should; only when there arises the danger of an epidemic, when there is evidence of graft, dishonesty, or fraud will they speak up—for the protection of the common people. Then other agencies will adjudicate the cases thus reported. The *Dean of Instruction* likewise as such has no disciplinary powers whatever. Of course, he ought to be a man who has the courage to speak up when he sees that somewhere in the process his reports are shelved and conveniently forgotten. The Public Interest may require *action*. Thus he may have to function as the *Tribune of the People*, as any good citizen, I should think, would want him to function.

What procedure, with all these safeguards of individual rights, can be more open and orderly, or more well destined to serve the people as a fine example of public probity? . . .

No, we shall not make any progress in our much-needed reforms unless and until those at the top in our councils have better knowledge of "who is who and what is what." Intelligent planning and building cannot begin until we first direct light on this grave problem. Indeed our reputation as a great teaching institution where we should give the moral and social direction for the use of that which our scientists produce, demands that we no longer side-step this basic issue."

Unfortunately, no big industrial corporation is losing money because of what we don't do in our courses of humanistic, philosophic, or social content; if it did, it would immediately establish a research and testing laboratory in order to find the leaks and to improve the methods. Since, however, in our science courses we are producing for industry quite creditable human artifacts, well-trained to make for their employers more money, either by developing new compounds or cheaper means of production, all is well as far as they are concerned. But is it well for us, the people? It certainly is not. A sad and sickening answer can be given by simply pointing to that which once was Germany, whose great technological plants have been destroyed, its scholars and scientists buried under the same rubble, master and servant meeting the same sorry fate. The fate of Germany may only be a prelude to our own fate to come, thanks to the

cleverness of the world's atomic scientists. Goethe's "Sorcerer's Apprentice" comes to one's mind in this connection, only it is not likely that the "Zaubermeister" will come in the nick of time to save the "Apprentice," and us, from utter destruction.

For many people "college" is something far away and of no concern to them, but such a view of the matter is the height of folly. They may as well say it matters not what kind of water the city has in its reservoir because it is many miles away! Indeed we cannot have better thoughts and actions in the nation than we have in our colleges and universities, especially in their humanistic courses where the foundation for a superior life can best be laid. "From here the influence will spread upward and downward into our social structure. Upward into the higher ranges of research, of politics, the law, the press, and business, as our students grow up and take their places in active life; downward through men and women whom the college trains, into the high schools and grade schools and communities at large throughout the land."⁷

To be sure it requires a special kind of human being to fill these teaching posts well; not anybody will do who just happens to want to teach because he doesn't know what else to do, or who likes to sit in a library mulling over books as an escape from himself or from the world. We do not rest until we have found the right kind of human being to man our super-fortresses or to fill important posts in our money-making world. The proper material for our educational tasks will also be found, as soon as the people at large become aware of the fact that their very welfare depends on finding it.

The kind of teacher the country needs must not only be a very normal, but actually a supernormal⁸ person, emotionally speaking,

⁷ *Teaching and Scholarship & the Res publica*, p. 12.

⁸ Karl Menninger, *Love Against Hate*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1942. Although Dr. Menninger has in mind primarily the grade and high school teachers, what he says applies to anyone who is called upon to teach; this includes professors no less than the nation's parents. The passage we have in mind reads (p. 254): "One might almost say that a teacher, by very virtue of her role of teacher, must be not only a normal, but a supernormal person. She must be able to give large quantities of love, regardless of the preliminary attitudes or the direct personal responses of the children. *That her pupils will love her in return is secondary; if it becomes primary, her usefulness as a teacher is handicapped.*"

If college professors should raise their eyebrows because they are expected to "love" their students, may Hamlet's generous words serve them as guide and beacon.

so that he will not make his personal complexes the baneful standards according to which he judges and treats his students, twisting them possibly out of shape, maybe forever, to our society's costly detriment.

The country's schools of education should take the lead, by rights, in this check-up and in this search for means of improving the capacity and the quality of those whom they send from their lecture halls certified as capable of teaching the youth of the land. At present, alas, it cannot be gainsaid that students, for good and sufficient reasons, have complained for decades that their courses in education were boring, repetitious, and often a waste of time. It is a pity that such conditions should prevail because they bring the very words "pedagogy" and "education" into ill repute, a fate which they do not deserve.

Matters could be mended with some good will and some high-minded self-discipline on the part of our professional "educators." The beginning lies in the use of a Student-Faculty Reaction Sheet. Such a practice should be obligatory for every school of education if it wants to serve its students and the country well.

Dean Anderson, of the School of Education at the University of Wisconsin, among some others, is employing one with exemplary completeness. On the form used by him there appear all the names of his faculty who are giving courses in that particular term. Dean Anderson's name appears there, too, so his students have as full opportunity to "react" to his work as to the work of any one else.

Not so long ago some graduate students in the School of Education at Harvard also started a movement to improve their courses in education and were encouraged by distinguished members of their faculty. The questionnaire used by these students contained sixteen major questions with a number of sub-divisions. Points to be checked went to the root of many an evil in schools of education; some of these were:⁹

Hamlet has charged Polonius to see to it that the players "be well bestowed." When the latter replies, "I will use them according to their desert," Hamlet counters with dash and fire: "God's bodikins, man, much better; use every man after his desert, and who should 'scape whipping? Use them after your own honor and dignity: the less they deserve, the more merit is in your bounty."

⁹ Further details are given in *More than an Academic Question . . .*, p. 133.

"Please give specific examples you have noted in your courses of any undue duplication of subject matter."

"List the courses in education in order according to their value in passing the general exam. If some are of no value, please indicate which ones."

"What is the one thing about the school during the past year which disturbed you most?"

"What is the one thing about the school which has impressed you most favorably, and which you would least like to see discontinued?"

This kind of inquiry shows the sort of spirit that should prevail in every department of education. The very weight of its honesty and eagerness to do the right thing by the nation's children cannot help but make itself felt in every other department on any campus and in the nation at large.

However insensitive or inattentive the academicians may be regarding their sins of commission or omission, the students know right well when they are being sorely neglected, if not hurt outright. Conscious of the existence of much unevenness in *Academia*, a group of students in one large university's co-operative living units finally went about systematically to provide some degree of protection for themselves and their fellow students, thus acting in the best of American traditions. They united for self-help and mutual protection when those in authority failed to redress grievous wrongs, turned deaf ears to earnest pleas, and persistently ignored every petition.

Their first task was to work out a student-faculty reaction sheet which would cover on one form the three different types of courses, such as (1) one-man courses, (2) lecture courses with section meetings under a section leader, and (3) lecture courses in the sciences with laboratory periods supervised by young assistants. The form which they finally worked out is printed with this article; it is "No. 1 (General)."

They distributed these blanks to the library committees of the various living-groups, for each one of these has in its unit a small library for the use of its members. These library committees are now building up files of "reaction sheets" for the guidance and benefit of the members of their houses. They have made a good start at the

STUDENT REACTION SHEET No. 1 (General)

COURSE INSTRUCTOR DATE
 CHECK: Fresh () Soph () Junior () Senior () Grad. () Man () Woman ()

MAJOR WHAT KIND OF A STUDENT ARE YOU?: good () fair () poor ()

Note: In order to make this reaction sheet serviceable for a great variety of courses, and at the same time to keep it from becoming clumsy and confusing, only basic matters have been included. Check thoughtfully the items which pertain to your particular type of course. If questions, answer "yes" or "no".

I. Lectures or Classwork (such as languages, math., etc.)

A. Presentation of Subject Matter:

Systematic () Alive () Dull routine () Confusing* () Too fast ()
 Too slow () Problems, or Grammar, well () poorly () explained. If modern
 foreign language class: Is the language spoken enough a) by instructor?.....
 b) by students?..... c) can you understand it when spoken?.....

B. Instructor's Attitude toward Students and general Bearing in Classroom:

Always helpful () Not too much so () Indifferent () Impatient ()
 Sarcastic () Alive () Good sense of humor () Easily "worked" ()
 Listless () Dead ()

II. Section Meetings and Laboratory Periods Section Leader

A. Section Leader's Attitude and general Bearing:

Helpful () Not too much so* () Indifferent () Snobbish () Impatient ()
 Alert & systematic () Problems well () poorly () explained.

III. Reading Assignments

A. Textbooks or Grammars:

Material clearly presented "yes" () "no" () interesting () out of date ()

B. Readers** (in language course):

Just right () Too easy () Too hard () Boring* ()

C. Homework and Outside Reading:

Very fair () Uneven* () Not enough () Too much () Unreasonable ()

IV. Tests

Very fair () Not fair* () Was there enough time allowed?..... Were you given
 enough tests?..... Were they promptly corrected and returned?.....

Was there cheating?..... Was there proper supervision?.....

NOTE: The queries regarding cheating had to be added because cheating must go.
 No one should tolerate it because the world about us is honeycombed with graft
 and thievery. Cheating in class is most disruptive of student morale; besides,
 it makes the faculty appear pompous and foolish when they give "grades" as
 dependable indications of knowledge. It is a teacher's chief civic duty to
 protect his honest students against dishonest competition.

V. Grading

Just and fair () Too mechanical () Too lenient () Too severe ()

VI. Would you advise another student to schedule this instructor in this course?.....

Do you think this course is valuable enough to be chosen as an elective?.....

* State on back in what respect or why or why not.

** If several readers were used, make list on back and comment briefly on each.

For a full discussion of the use of Student-Faculty Reaction Sheet see
 Schneider, F.: MORE THAN AN ACADEMIC QUESTION - Needed a Dean of Instruction.
 Berkeley 1945, Pestalozzi Press.

end of last semester. Many blanks have been filled out and the
 information thus available at the beginning of the new term will be
 as welcome to the bewildered students as is the Consumers' Union
 Bulletin to the lay buyer, or as Dun & Bradstreet's credit ratings
 are to the merchant who does not want to lose money.

Heretofore, students had to depend on some chance bit of round-about hearsay. Now a teacher's handling of the course, his approach to the human problem of teaching, aside from his technical preparation for the job—there is many a language teacher, for instance, who does not know enough about the language he is to teach, so the student had better pick one who does know—are rather thoroughly checked on the "Reaction Sheet," and the information lies right before the prospective customer for his inspection. Differences of opinion, too, come to light by this procedure, and the teacher in question is getting a fair deal. Formerly, offhand remarks by word of mouth might have come from a disgruntled source and would naturally give a warped and unfair picture of the teacher's ways and abilities.¹⁰

Sometimes students snarl: "What's the use of filling out a reaction sheet on this fellow; he's the only one who gives this required course! He's been giving it for years, and he knows the students loathe it, but does he care?" It would nevertheless be well to continue to "react" on paper, for these "reactions" may serve at some later date, in a more enlightened day, as documentary evidence of the unbelievable lack of gumption and common sense in the haunts of the "learned."

Only those who know college from personal experience and who are also sensitive about what a teaching institution should be like, can be aware of the great amount of dullness, pomposity, and irascibility that can be hidden under an academic gown!

Lest this remark be looked upon as scurrilous and without foundation, we quote Dr. Waldo G. Leland, the Director of the American Council of Learned Societies, through whose office so many funds for research in the field of the humanities are distributed to our American scholars seeking grants for their projects:

"It too often happens that much time, labor, and often substantial funds are devoted to tasks which do not yield results utilizable even by scholarship itself. Not only do they fail to add usefully to knowledge, but they too often stunt the intellectual growth of those who labored at them . . . Much of the energy devoted to research might far better have been devoted to teaching. Research, which should vitalize teaching, has too often been used merely as an excuse for

¹⁰ In *Students Examine Their Professors*, other phases of this problem have been taken up in detail, p. 22. The book *More than an Academic Question* goes still more deeply into this matter.

doing as little teaching as possible, or as a sort of compensation for poor teaching, which itself is responsible for many difficulties in which the humanities find themselves today."¹¹

Sometimes a brave soul from the teaching profession itself tries to tell the people a little about *Academia*, as, for instance, did Professor Paul Green in a speech at the same time Dr. Leland spoke, and which was printed in the same booklet.¹² But the guilty who hear or read such complaints and charges just sit tight, knowing full well that these pleas will soon be forgotten, and that nothing will happen. The title of Green's address was "Preface for Professors—or The Responsibilities of Humanistic Education Today"; I quote from it this telling passage (p. 6):

"Indeed we did the best we could for them [i.e. our students during their four years at college] according to our lights and precepts handed down, forsooth, from German scholarship, through the routine and ritual facts, problems, and influences. But that was not enough. They wanted something besides facts and laws and behavior of matter and things. They wanted something to believe in, something to move their souls, to help them keep their drive and increase it, something to lift their faith in themselves and the human race and a universal and benign rightness which men call God. They wanted something that lived and moved and had its powers beyond the reach of any analyses or compact formulae. And we didn't give it to them. . . ."

The students could not get it because too many of those who were expected to give it, didn't have it to give. Such "teachers" possessed book learning, but no fire.

Since it is the *people* at large who ultimately suffer from this lack of spirit and energy and considerateness in high places, the people themselves should at last begin to set up checks and balances in order to protect themselves, their children, and their children's future.

The time will come when even the President of the United States will have by his side, as a check, some one who expressly represents the *Public Interest*, one not appointed by him nor sub-

¹¹ In an address delivered before the Stanford Conference of the Humanities, at Stanford University, May 8, 1943, subsequently published by the Stanford University Press under the title *The Humanities Look Ahead*, pp. 66 and 68.

¹² *The Humanities Look Ahead*, pp. 3-13.

SOME ADDITIONAL SPECIMEN STUDENT-FACULTY REACTION SHEETS, FROM THE BOOK *More than an Academic Question*.

RATING SCALE FOR INSTRUCTORS

Following is a list of qualities which are important in your instructor. In order to obtain information which may lead to the improvement of instruction, you are asked to rate your instructor on the indicated qualities. Make a check (V) in the space on the scale which most nearly describes him with reference to the quality you are considering. The rating is to be entirely impersonal. Do not sign your name or make any other mark on the paper which could serve to identify you. If you do not know how to evaluate a particular quality, leave it blank.

	Name of department	Name of course	Name of instructor
Organization of Course Material	Well organized	Loosely organized	Indefinite and confusing
Content of Lecture	Interesting	Mildly interesting	Dull
Recitation	Encourages questions	Answers questions when asked	Ignores questions
Discussion	Encourages original thinking		Demanding only memory work
Laboratory Work	Completed within period		Excessive outside work
Assignments	Reasonable	Occasionally too long	Too long
Examinations	Returned and explained	Returned only	Not returned
Content of Exam	Reasonable selection of subject matter		Exam composed of minor details
Partiality	Impartial		Easily "apple polished"
Mastery of Subject Matter	Adequate knowledge of subject	Limited knowledge	Inadequate knowledge
Presentation of Current Material	Frequently	Occasionally	Never
English	Encourages use of good English		No attention to English usage
Appearance	Neat in grooming and dress		Poorly groomed
Attitude toward Student	Considerate	Occasional cutting remarks	Sarcastic
Cooperation	Cooperative	Indifferent	Antagonistic
Instructor-Student Relationship	Maintains desirable relationships with students		Unpleasantly personal
Voice	Understandable in all parts of room		Hard to understand
Sense of Humor	Excellent sense of humor		No sense of humor
Value of Course	Unusually valuable to students		Fails to meet student's need
Stimulation of Intellectual Curiosity	Creates interest		Destroys interest

servient to him. Free men and women will have to insist upon such a safeguard, as a matter of common sense.

The world's sovereign nations, too, are getting ready in self-

PESTALOZZI REACTION SHEET: Modern Foreign Languages

Note to Students: Please check carefully, thoughtfully, and completely the remarks below which express your reactions to this course:

Course
 Instructor
 Student's Year in College
 Major Sex

TOPICS FOR CONSIDERATION		FAVORABLE REACTIONS		UNFAVORABLE REACTIONS		**
		Very	Rather	Rather	Very	
Teacher's attitude toward students:	a)	<input type="checkbox"/> Sympathetic and Understanding	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Cold and distant	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	b)	<input type="checkbox"/> Helpful	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Impatient and sharp	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Presentation of subject matter:	a)	<input type="checkbox"/> Alive and interesting	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Routine and dull	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	b)	<input type="checkbox"/> Systematic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Planless	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	c)	<input type="checkbox"/> Clear	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Confusing	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Stimulation of interest by teacher:	a)	<input type="checkbox"/> In subject	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Destroys interest	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	b)	<input type="checkbox"/> All around	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Indifferent	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Foreign Language Practice:		<input type="checkbox"/> Satisfactory	<input type="checkbox"/>	WOULD LIKE TO HAVE		
	1) Amount read aloud in class:			More by teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				More by students	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				Less by teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				Less by students	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	2) Amount spoken in class:	<input type="checkbox"/> Satisfactory	<input type="checkbox"/>	More by teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				More by students	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				Less by teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				Less by students	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Note: State on back if you can follow when it is spoken or not, and if not, give reasons.						
Textbooks:				<input type="checkbox"/> Too detailed	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	1) Grammar:	<input type="checkbox"/> Clear and practical	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Too brief	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				<input type="checkbox"/> Confusing	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	2) Reader:			<input type="checkbox"/> Dull	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	a) Contents:	<input type="checkbox"/> Interesting	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Too hard	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	b) Difficulty:	<input type="checkbox"/> Just right	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Too easy	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Note: If you have more than one reader, list them on the back and comment on each separately.						
Emphasis of course: (Relative amounts of grammar and reading)		<input type="checkbox"/> Satisfactory	<input type="checkbox"/>	WOULD LIKE TO HAVE EMPHASIS		
				More on grammar	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				More on reading	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Pace of course:		<input type="checkbox"/> Satisfactory	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Too fast	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				<input type="checkbox"/> Too slow	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Amount of homework:		<input type="checkbox"/> Satisfactory	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Too much	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				<input type="checkbox"/> Too little	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Note: If the assignments are uneven in length or poorly distributed, comment on the back.						
Tests:				<input type="checkbox"/> Unfair	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	1) Contents:	<input type="checkbox"/> Fair and thoughtful	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Not helpful	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	2) Types given:	<input type="checkbox"/> Helpful	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Too many	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				<input type="checkbox"/> Too few	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	3) Frequency:	<input type="checkbox"/> Satisfactory	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Not enough	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	4) Time allowed:	<input type="checkbox"/> Satisfactory	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Too much	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Notes: If you have marked the tests as unfair, state on the back in what respect. If you find them not helpful, say what types you object to and what types you prefer. Please answer with "yes" or "no."—Have you noticed any cheating during tests?						
Grading:		<input type="checkbox"/> Just and fair	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Too lenient	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				<input type="checkbox"/> Too severe	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				<input type="checkbox"/> Too mechanical	<input type="checkbox"/>	
				<input type="checkbox"/> Favoritism shown	<input type="checkbox"/>	

*It is necessary in some cases to check both sides in order to get a clear idea of what is in your mind.

**Put in the right hand column a check opposite the item, or items, about which you have written comments on the back of the sheet.

If you are aware of other problems, bring them up on the back of this sheet.

(Fall 1944)

protection to relinquish some of their absolute sovereignty. It is high time that our classroom sovereignty is also curtailed.

A "Dean of Instruction" would then become the great stabilizer of our teaching efforts with the result that we shall have better trained human material to carry on. This officer will with high-

mindness and integrity protect the good and competent servant of the people against petty jealousies and discriminations on the part of the slothful and second-raters. The Dean can also give practical advice to those among the faculty who seek it, for in his hands is the over-all picture of what is going on and of what ought to be achieved. The Dean also is in a position to pass helpful hints from department to department on especially helpful ways of doing a certain kind of work. This Dean thus will, by these sensible and simple efforts, bring about that the children of the people are given ever more bread and ever fewer stones.¹³

¹³ Dr. Henry Seidel Canby, in his projected address before the Modern Language Association of America, December, 1942, closed with these words: ". . . I submit that this generation of young people has reason to say to the American scholar, 'I asked for bread and you gave me a stone!'"

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Higher Education—the Past Year and Tomorrow

FRANCIS J. BROWN

IT IS A genuine pleasure to meet with you again. It was just one year ago exactly to the day, and as I recall almost at this same hour, that I talked with you on the problems that were facing higher education in a world that was still at war. Then, we faced insecurity and planning was of necessity subject to many contingencies. Now we can look forward with confidence, make plans and build programs based upon long-range values. Some of the issues a year ago today are not now problems. Others have been intensified; and new ones have arisen.

A year ago I centered my remarks around four issues: federal assistance to colleges, selective service, military training and veterans education. Let me briefly review the developments within the year of each of these and then indicate two new issues.

Federal assistance to meet the losses of war was a vital problem facing many colleges and universities. The study for the Committee on Education of the House of Representatives was completed in January 1944, a bill was drawn following the recommendation of the Advisory Committee, and in June, after hearings, it was approved by the Committee on Education. There were exasperating delays but the bill was to have been reported on favorably by the Committee on Education immediately upon the reconvening of Congress this fall. Then came VJ Day and the rapid demobilization of the Armed Forces. Some colleges, especially the smaller ones, are still facing difficulty but it is the unanimous judgment of the Advisory Committee that it is poor public relations to press for the passage of this bill at this time. It is necessary to choose between the greater good: press for federal assistance of a temporary nature or for federal funds to meet the long-range problems of housing and research. It is impossible to do both. I hope the Advisory Committee has chosen wisely.

The second issue was Selective Service. During the year the shortage of scientific personnel has become even more acute. Despite

this fact many believed that student deferment was unwise during war. There is now, however, unanimous agreement that student deferment should be re-established. Within only a few weeks after VJ Day the Council submitted a series of recommendations to the Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion as follows:

1. That high school students should be permitted to graduate prior to their induction.
2. That students in colleges and universities should be permitted to finish the semester or quarter in which they become 18 years of age.
3. That medical, dental, and osteopathic schools should be authorized to certify for deferment a number of students equal to 75% of their freshman classes in 1939-40.
4. That colleges and universities should be authorized to certify for deferment from those enrolled in the institution prior to their 18th birthday a number equal to the graduating class in 1939-40 with majors in specified necessary fields.

Conferences were held with representatives of various agencies of government and a conference called by the Office of War Mobilization gave specific consideration to these recommendations. Selective Service has now issued regulations putting the first two of the Council's recommendations into effect. In fact, in regard to high school students they exceeded our recommendations and stated that no man would be inducted until he completed his high school education or until the age of 20, if enrolled in such secondary school at the time he becomes 18. Selective Service has provided for the postponement of induction of all college and university students until the end of the term or quarter in which they become 18. No decision has yet been made in regard to the other two recommendations, but the issue is postponed until the end of the current term. Two factors influence decision on these two recommendations. The first is the enrollment in colleges and universities. If the institutions have such numbers of veterans enrolled that it would be impossible for them to continue the education of deferred 18 year olds, then it would be useless to urge such deferment. About the middle of November the Council will make a quick sampling survey, in cooperation with the professional organizations involved, to determine the prospective situation regarding numbers in training in necessary fields, if such students are inducted at the end of this term.

The second variable factor is the need of the Armed Forces and the consequent quotas of induction. Immediately after VJ Day the Armed Forces announced that 1,000,000 would be needed for the occupational troops in the Pacific; 400,000 in Europe; and a sustaining force of a million men—a total of 2,400,000. More recently General MacArthur dropped his own atomic bomb into the army's plan by stating that Pacific needs would require only 200,000 men. This morning's paper carried the statement that occupational troops in Europe would not be in excess of 135,000. Assuming a number equal to a third of this total is required in the sustaining forces, the maximum needs of the military would appear not to exceed 500,000. Since 1,200,000 men become 18 every year and of this number 800,000 are physically qualified for military service, it would appear that if all are inducted the "tour of duty" could rotate every $7\frac{1}{2}$ months. Certainly if these facts are borne out, there is ample room for the deferment of those who can better serve the nation through training and education than through the military.

The third issue, that of compulsory training, is more imminent now than it was one year ago. Many educators unfortunately were lulled by the atomic bomb into believing, as one of them stated, "Military training is now a dead issue." A year ago I suggested that the strategy of education was to ask for postponement of decision until the war was over. We must now shift our strategy and move in the direction of a counter offensive. The Council through communications to President Truman has repeated its earlier request to the late President Roosevelt for the naming of a commission to study the whole issue of our national defense. In my judgment this is not enough. On October 10, General Marshall declared for a year of military training; General Patton and others have echoed his statements. The army plan is unchanged from what it was a year ago—one continuous year of military training for all under military control. Some of the colleges and other organizations including the American Legion have advocated a program combining short training periods and ROTC.

Colleges and universities must not back such a plan lest they may rightfully be accused of buying off the sons of those whose parents can afford to send them to college. Any alternative program must include equivalent provisions also for those not in colleges. Aggressive planning is necessary, for the best defense is offense.

The fourth problem discussed a year ago was veterans education. At that time, we urged co-ordination of counseling and greater flexibility in higher education. The first has been largely achieved. The Veterans Administration has designated 135 colleges and universities as counseling centers. The Council's *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Forces* has become almost a Bible in accrediting military experience. The Council has just now completed a *Guide to Colleges, Universities and Professional Schools in the United States* which, through a simple code, gives information on 226 separate items affecting veterans' education, and includes more than 3,000 institutions. Part I gives general information for all colleges, listed alphabetically by states. Part II lists institutions by 24 major fields and gives more detailed information for each institution. Some 15,000 copies have been purchased by the Armed Forces and will be delivered in October. The book will be available for general distribution in its second printing which is now expected by December 15.

The second, that of flexibility, has not yet been wholly achieved. In fact a new danger lies ahead. As the number of veterans increases, and the yearning for students declines, colleges and universities may return to their old standards and their former procedures. That this is actually happening is indicated by a recent letter from one of our largest and best known universities to a veteran. It was a form letter stating only that the application had been received, that he could not be considered for this present term, but if the veteran so wished they would keep his application on file for possible consideration for admission next term.

No reference was made to the fact that more than 6 weeks had intervened between the veteran's first application and the receipt of the form letter, during which time he had written twice and telegraphed once. No reference was made to the possibility of his attending some other institution. The letter was cold and impersonal.

Flexibility involves at least five things. The first relates to admission requirements. You are familiar with the Guide to which I have already referred and to the examination procedures continually recommended by the Council and approved by the Regional Accrediting Associations. The Council is now initiating a new project through which "circuit-riders" will hold regional conferences throughout the United States to discuss the whole problem of accreditation and the more effective use of the *Guide* and examination procedures.

Flexibility implies also making it possible for veterans to enter at more frequent intervals than the traditional semester or quarter. Some institutions have provided for review and refresher courses, largely on a tutorial basis and in which the veteran can enroll at any time. Others, like the one I referred to above, have re-established their former rigidity. If such special programs are developed exclusively for veterans I believe that it is possible through the regional office of the Veterans Administration to negotiate a special contract for such service. The third factor of flexibility is to refer the students to other institutions when the institution cannot admit them or when such referral is in the best interest of the veteran. Flexibility also implies a fourth factor, namely variation in course requirement in the light of specialized training that the veteran has received while in military service. The Council study on the implications of military training for civilian education has now gotten under way with Dr. Alonzo Grace, Commissioner of Education of Connecticut, as Director. This study should provide factual data to make possible this greater flexibility in the light of the technician training of the individual. The final factor in flexibility is the co-operation of colleges and universities with other agencies to meet the needs of training and education of the 60% of the veterans who have not graduated from high school. It is interesting to know that a year ago 70% of all veterans in training and education under Public Laws 16 and 346 were in colleges and universities. Today that percentage has dropped to 53, due partly to the fact that colleges and universities have not been as flexible as is yet possible, and secondly to the development of training and education through public school systems, many of which are establishing separate veterans schools.

Pending amendments to Public Law 346 make it all the more imperative if the law is changed, that colleges and universities exercise leadership in assuring that only institutions capable of rendering effective service to veterans be put on the approved list within the state.

Much has been done and colleges and universities have taken the lead but much must yet be done. Institutions must resist the temptation to return to pre-war policies and procedures. Higher education will be judged during this next decade, not by the overall policies, but by those of specific institutions.

These were issues a year ago and their development during the year. There are many new issues that have arisen, but I can refer briefly to only four of them. The first is that of pending legislation

providing federal subsidy for research and establishing a national system of scholarships and fellowships. Two fundamental problems are involved in this legislation: one is the distribution of such research and fellowships among the educational institutions both as to size and control; the second is whether such federal assistance could be extended to include both the social science field and the humanities, rather than limited exclusively to the more objective physical sciences.

A second issue is that of surplus war property. I had hoped that I could announce the issuance of a new regulation implementing Section 13 of the Surplus War Property Act. This section provides for disposal of surplus war properties to educational and health institutions on the basis of public benefits. Unfortunately the issuance of this regulation has been long delayed, due primarily to inherent difficulties. The first is within the law itself. After providing for distribution of surplus war property to both private and public institutions, a paragraph is added stating that in the disposal of property under this section priority shall be given to federal, state and local governments and their instrumentalities. Tax supported schools and colleges are instrumentalities of government. Does "priority" mean time preference? Or what does it mean? No one has yet found the answer to reconcile this paragraph with both the letter and the spirit of the rest of the act.

The second difficulty is that of setting up criteria to determine "public benefits." Who can tell which institution should have a projector or lunchroom equipment in terms of the benefit that may accrue from its use in college A as compared to college B? Many of the commodities most needed by colleges and universities will be those items in short supply and some basis of allocation is necessary. It is my fear that in attempting to set up criteria to determine relative benefit, delays will continue while valuable surplus war property slips from the grasp of educational institutions.

The third problem that has developed into significant proportions is the relationship of general and special education. The report of the Conference Committee, the Harvard Report, the Yale Report and others have highlighted this issue. Veterans and discharged war workers have personalized the issue. I do not know the answer but there is need for clarity of thinking and a new appraisal of fundamental educational values.

The last issue which can be included in this brief review is that

of the relation of the federal government to both public and private higher education. The war has opened the public purse, although such largesse has not been evenly distributed among the institutions. Pending legislation regarding research, housing, especially of veterans, the vocational education bill, and others, makes it necessary to formulate basic principles looking to the long future in the relations of higher education to the federal government. The Council is contemplating making such a study, but the issue is now upon us, more acute than at any other time.

The need of the present is for a new outlook that will focus attention upon basic issues, perhaps even more than upon institutional procedures. Immediate needs must be met but long-range values must be reappraised. The next five years beginning now, this fall, will shape the course of higher education for the next five decades, and perhaps the history of the world. Man has conquered the universe, can he now chart the course for himself in this new physical world that he has created?

In our hands is laid
All the universe of power and might
Our puny minds have grasped the secret
Of power beyond ourselves, speedier than light.

Ours now a greater challenge—
The conquest of ourselves, of fear and hate,
To build a world that's most like God's
Controlled by wisdom—not by fate.

The Movement for the Accrediting of Liberal Arts Colleges

JULIUS H. HUGHES

INTRODUCTION

THE GERM of the accrediting movement probably had its inception in the need for defining a college. This need arose when various agencies began to list institutions of higher learning.

The first agency of any consequence to attempt such a definition was the United States Bureau of Education. Established in 1867 as a department, it was changed to a bureau in the Department of the Interior in 1868. It was the function of the Bureau to summarize the educational activities of the country. In order to do this it had to present statistics concerning the number of colleges that maintained programs of dubious academic level. The Bureau was apparently reluctant to set up fine distinctions. It included in its early lists of colleges any institution authorized to give degrees and reporting college students.

The United States Bureau of Education, with its need for defining a college, was not the only force working toward the accrediting movement. In 1893 the Federated Graduate Clubs, at a meeting in New York City, expressed much concern over the lack of uniformity in requirements for the Doctor's degree in American universities and contended that the universities should facilitate university intermigration. The Federation also attacked the policy of granting honorary Ph.D. degrees, and recommended that the degree be given only to persons competent to advance knowledge in some department and trained as resident graduates in some university of high rank.¹ Whereas this body can hardly be referred to as an accrediting agency, there can be little doubt that the *Handbook*, official publication of the Federated Graduate Clubs, presenting statistics concerning the facilities of the institutions and their respective professors, served as a means of ranking the various universities.

That the work of the Federation influenced the universities is

¹ *A Handbook for Graduate Students*, Federated Graduate Clubs, 1893, p. ix.

brought out in the President's report given at the Federation's Fourth Annual Convention in 1898.² He pointed out that a number of the universities were considering the standardization of requirements for advanced degrees and admission to graduate work. The Ph.D., he said, had not been conferred "honoris causa" by any of the institutions represented in the Federation, and the number of such degrees granted by the smaller colleges seemed to be declining. In addition, the President quoted letters of commendation on the work of the Federation from such leading university officers as Dr. Motzke of Leland Stanford, Professor White, Dean of University Faculty at Cornell, and President Eliot of Harvard University.

In addition to the Bureau of Education and the Federated Graduate Clubs, the National Educational Association might lay claim to an early interest in the accrediting of colleges. In 1898 B. A. Hinsdale suggested that a federation of colleges and universities be formed with a membership restricted to institutions which met requirements for such matters as admission, graduation, and the giving of graduate work. "Clearly here was a definite suggestion of an accrediting agency, but was felt unwise to make any such attempt at that time."³ In making this suggestion Mr. Hinsdale pointed out the following:

... the low value of much that passes in the United States for higher education is a thrice told tale. The causes of this state of things are disclosed by a glance into the history of our civilization. The oldest of the nine colleges (Harvard) strove to maintain the standards of the university-colleges in England after which they had been modeled, but not with complete success; while the later schools of the same group fell to a still lower level . . . a much greater loss came with the colonization of the great West . . . so-called institutions of higher education multiplied with the inevitable result that to the popular mind, and, it is feared, to some men styled educated, the words "college" and "university" came to mean little more than schools that held commencements, gave out diplomas, conferred honorary degrees and solicited subscriptions.⁴

² *Graduate Handbook*, VII, Federated Graduate Clubs, 1899, pp. 10-12.

³ G. E. Zook and M. E. Haggerty, *Principles of Accrediting Higher Institutions*, Vol. I of *The Evaluation of Higher Institutions* (7 Vols.; Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1936), p. 24.

⁴ B. A. Hinsdale, "Is it Possible and Desirable to Form a Federation of Colleges and Universities in the United States Similar to the Association of American Medical Colleges?", *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the National Education Association*, XXXVII (1898), p. 720.

The Methodist University Senate, created in 1892 with authority to classify the various colleges of the church and to issue an official list of the institutions, might also claim an early interest in the idea of accrediting institutions of higher learning. The Senate's first official list was published in March, 1897. During the 1830's and the 1840's there were a number of Methodist institutions founded. The Civil War seems to have checked the process of college founding, but during the 1880's colleges were again established in increasing numbers. The creation of the University Senate "seems to have exercised a notable check upon the establishment of new colleges under the auspices of the Methodist Episcopal Church."⁵

At the time of the founding of the University of Chicago President Harper announced the plan of entering into relations of affiliation with smaller institutions. This plan was designed to assist the smaller colleges in making their respective academic work tantamount to that of the University of Chicago and may be regarded as one of the possible starting points of the idea of accreditation. The University, under certain conditions, would recognize the credits of affiliated institutions as its own. This plan enabled students of affiliated colleges to transfer at any time to the University with a standing corresponding to that in the affiliated college.⁶

EARLY STEPS TOWARD ACCREDITING

It was the interest in university intermigration, expressed by the Federated Graduate Clubs, that seems to have initiated the effort to grade or accredit institutions of higher learning. In 1900 the presidents of Harvard University, Columbia University, the University of Chicago, and the University of California issued an invitation to the University of California, the Catholic University of America, the University of Chicago, Clark University, Columbia University, Harvard University, the Johns Hopkins University, the University of Michigan, the University of Pennsylvania, Princeton University, and the Leland Stanford University to attend a conference to be held in Chicago for the consideration of problems connected with graduate work. The United States Commissioner of Education

⁵ Floyd Reeves *et al.*, *The Liberal Arts Colleges*, Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1932, pp. 3-4.

⁶ University of Chicago, *The President's Report, July 1897-July 1898, with Summaries for 1891-7*, The University of Chicago Press, 1899, pp. 193-195.

and a delegate from the Federated Graduate Clubs were also invited to attend the meeting. The invitation pointed out the following:

... there is reason to believe that among other things the deliberations of such a conference as has been proposed will (1) result in a greater uniformity of the conditions under which students may become candidates for higher degrees in different universities, thereby solving the question of migration, which has become an important issue with the Federated Graduate clubs; (2) to raise the opinion entertained abroad of our own Doctor's degree; (3) raise the standard of our own weaker institutions.⁷

It was during this conference that the Association of American Universities was born.

After the Association adopted a constitution stating that the purpose of the organization was to consider "matters of common interest relating to graduate study," A. D. Leuchner of the University of California suggested, among other things, that the Executive Committee consider the advisability of requesting foreign universities to require American students doing graduate work to present a Bachelor's degree from an American college or university, and the advisability of limiting the institutions from which such Bachelor's degrees may be accepted.⁸ This suggestion implies that Mr. Leuchner felt that the Association could not consider "matters of common interest relating to graduate study" without involving those colleges not offering graduate work. Consequently, coincidental with the birth of the Association of American Universities, is the suggestion to grade or accredit liberal arts colleges.

In 1902, two years after the founding of the Association of American Universities, the General Education Board was established through a donation of \$1,000,000 by John D. Rockefeller, Sr. This organization was set up for the "promotion of education within the United States of America without distinction of race, sex, or creed."⁹ The General Education Board found that in 1902 there were approximately 700 institutions calling themselves colleges or universities, and that many of these were hardly more than secondary

⁷ *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Association of American Universities*, I (1901), p. 11.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

⁹ *The General Education Board, An Account of its Activities, 1902-1914*, New York, General Education Board, 1915, p. 212.

schools, "not always good secondary schools at that. . . ."¹⁰ Like the Federated Graduate Clubs, the General Education Board was not an accrediting agency, but it did contribute to the standardizing movement by gathering and classifying data concerning colleges and granting subsidies to the most promising ones.

As the General Education Board was raising the standards of higher education through its gifts, the Association of American Universities continued to discuss "matters of common interest relating to graduate study" with no overt action in regard to the accrediting of colleges. In 1904 the Association received a letter from the University of Berlin announcing that it would recognize the American Bachelor's degree as equivalent to the German "Maturitätszeugnis" and that it would give credit toward the Ph.D. degree only to those candidates who did their graduate work at one of the institutions represented by the Association of American Universities. This proved to be an additional motive for the grading of liberal arts colleges, but the Association did not see fit to undertake the job at that time.

The following year, 1905, Andrew Carnegie, through a gift of \$10,000,000 founded the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching to "provide pensions for the teachers of universities, colleges and technical schools in our country, Canada, and Newfoundland."¹¹ Again this necessitated defining a "college." The Foundation adopted a definition existing in the statutes of the State of New York which included the following:

\$200,000 of productive endowment, not less than six full chairs of instruction, four years of high school preparation required for admission (or 14 units) and 120 semester hours for graduation.¹¹

In addition, Mr. Carnegie stated in making his gift that any institution under the control of a denomination or which required its trustees or officers to belong to a specified denomination was excluded from the benefits of the Foundation. Whereas this stipulation has no reference to academic work it did figure in later accrediting developments and is mentioned here for the sake of clarity.

In 1906 the Association of American Universities appointed a

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 109.

¹¹ The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, *First Annual Report of the President and the Treasurer*, 1906, pp. 79-80.

special committee on Aim and Scope. Two years later this Committee pointed out that American colleges were suffering from the interpretation which foreign governments had placed upon the work and existence of the Association. Degrees from the best colleges were not recognized by foreign universities on the ground that they were not members of the Association of American Universities. This, the Committee contended, was unfair to the colleges, and it suggested that the Association make a list of those colleges whose degrees it regarded as equal to those conferred by the universities embraced in the Association. In an effort to eliminate this injustice the Association appointed another committee to consider the matter involved in the report of the Special Committee on Aim and Scope.¹² This was the Association's first significant effort (and probably the first in the country) to undertake the task of accrediting liberal arts colleges. This effort, however, proved to be a feeble one. The Association, in 1909, decided to await the publication of the results of a study of standardizing the American college by the Carnegie Foundation "before taking further action and at that time to invite the co-operation of the National Association of State Universities."¹³

It was during 1909 that the regional accrediting agencies began to take definite steps towards accrediting colleges. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, founded in 1895, had centered its accrediting work prior to this year around the secondary schools, but student migration and pressure from the secondary schools resulted in this Association's initiating an effort to standardize the liberal arts college. The Commission on Secondary Schools, established in 1901, was changed to the Commission on Accredited Schools and Colleges in 1906, but it was not until three years later that the Association adopted its first standards for colleges. These standards were based partly on results of data gathered by the Carnegie Foundation and by the United States Commissioner of Education. In addition to defining a standard college, they included the minimum requirements for admission, the minimum scholastic requirements of instructors, the minimum requirements for graduation, the character of the curriculum, the number of teaching hours assigned to a professor, library and laboratory equipment,

¹² *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Association of American Universities*, IX (1908), pp. 74-76.

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 65-66.

the type of preparation given the students and the procedure of admission to the Association.¹⁴

In 1910 Congress established the office of specialist in higher education in the Bureau of Education. The Bureau's list of colleges at this time included 605 institutions, some of which had academic programs that were hardly on a college level. In order to eliminate the most conspicuous deviations, the Bureau adopted the following new definition of a college:

An institution in order to warrant its inclusion must give degrees; must have definite standards of admission; must give at least two years of work of standard college grade; and must have at least twenty students in regular college status.¹⁵

Through this new definition the Bureau was able to reduce its list of colleges considerably.

Following the adoption of the new definition, K. C. Babcock, specialist in higher education, prepared a classification of colleges and universities in co-operation with the Association of American Universities. The colleges were classified on the basis of the success of their graduates in courses leading to the Master's degree and were divided into four groups ranging from "institutions whose graduates would ordinarily be able to take the Master's degree . . . in one year . . ." to "institutions whose Bachelor's degree would be approximately two years short of equivalency with the standard Bachelor's degree. . . ."¹⁶

Political pressure forced President Taft to request the Commissioner of Education to withhold publication of the list. When Woodrow Wilson took office the Association of American Universities wrote him a letter pointing out the advantages of such a classification and requesting him to withdraw the order to the Bureau of Education which resulted in the postponement of publication of the list.¹⁷

¹⁴ *Proceedings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools*, XIV (1909), pp. 52-54.

¹⁵ G. E. Zook and M. E. Haggerty, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

¹⁶ Fred J. Kelly *et al.*, *Collegiate Accreditation by Agencies Within the States*, U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 3. 1940, Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1940, p. 17.

¹⁷ *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Association of American Universities*, XV (1913), p. 19.

It is likely that the Association did not feel that its letter to the President would influence him to withdraw the suspension of the publication of the classification; for Mr. Babcock, then Dean of the college of liberal arts and sciences of the University of Illinois, pointed out to the Association that it would be advisable for the Association of American Universities and the National Association of State Universities to unite in an investigation of the institutions "claiming to do college or university work" and estimate in an objective manner, according to a common standard, the values of these institutions. Mr. Babcock contended that—

It is high time to speak out frankly and explicitly, giving support and recognition to the worthy and surely established (institutions) as distinguished from those in other classes.¹⁸

He also expressed the opinion that an institution of higher learning should not conceal facts and that publicity of the results of investigations by the Associations would be of considerable value to the public in the evaluation of various institutions.

Following Mr. Babcock's address the Association voted that the Executive Committee appoint a committee to investigate and report on the possibility of classifying colleges according to their educational standards.¹⁹

That same year, 1913, the Association of American Universities stated that it would not recognize the degree from any institution that was not recognized by the University of the state in which the institution was located. The Association also appointed a committee to consider the possibility of improving its knowledge of the several institutions sending students to the graduate schools of the Association.²⁰

The Executive Committee, in 1913, acting upon the recommendation of the Association, reported that the task of making a list of the colleges whose degrees were equivalent to those conferred by the members of the Association was not an easy one and that the Association did not have the available machinery for making such a list. It did suggest, however, that a list of colleges whose degrees should be recognized by foreign universities should include mem-

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, XV (1913), p. 54.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 20.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, X (1909), p. 66.

bers of the Association, institutions on the accepted list of the Carnegie Foundation, and institutions not included in this list because they are "in some sense sectarian as defined in the gift of the fund, but otherwise conform to its standards of acceptability."²¹

The North Central Association, in 1913, published its first list of approved colleges.

THE MOVEMENT GAINS MOMENTUM

In its annual meeting in 1914 the Association of American Universities appears to have adjusted itself to the fact that if it were to benefit from a classification of colleges it would have to undertake the job of grouping these institutions itself. At this meeting it was voted that the Committee on Classification of Colleges "be authorized to revise the list of colleges and universities, published in the last proceedings of the Association. . . ."²² The Association also voted to appoint a representative to serve as a member of a committee (Committee on Higher Educational Statistics) composed of representatives of other organizations selected by the Commissioner of Education to discuss the advisability of classifying colleges according to their standards. In addition, the Association approved a report of the Committee on Classification of Colleges recommending, among other things, that a provisional list of universities and colleges be prepared and circulated among the members of the Association for their private use. The list was to be studied with a view to its revision and subsequent publication. The list divided the colleges and universities into three groups, as follows:

Group A. Institutions whose graduates should ordinarily be admitted to the graduate schools of this Association for work in lines in which they have had adequate undergraduate preparation, with a reasonable presumption that advanced degrees may be taken with the minimum amount of prescribed work and in the minimum time prescribed. Students who choose work in lines for which their undergraduate course has not prepared them adequately must expect to take more time and do additional work.

Group B. Institutions from which those graduates of high standing in their classes who are individually recommended by the department

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 58-59.

²² *Ibid.*, XVI (1914), p. 18.

of undergraduate instruction corresponding to that in which they propose to do their graduate work may be admitted on the same basis as graduates from institutions in Group A.

Group C. Other institutions whose graduates should be admitted to graduate schools, but with the presumption that more than the minimum time and minimum amount of work will be ordinarily required for an advanced degree.²³

The following year, 1915, the representative to the meeting of the Committee on Higher Educational Statistics pointed out that the Committee was opposed to "any classification of colleges that grouped them into Class I, Class II, Class III, etc."²⁴ The Committee did agree, however, that information could be gathered and arranged so that any university might make its own classification. Represented at this meeting, in addition to the Association of American Universities, were the Association of New England Colleges, the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the National Association of State Universities, the American Medical Association, the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, and the Carnegie Foundation for the advancement of Teaching.

By 1914 the North Central Association had revised its standards of accrediting colleges and universities and made it clear that its members, as well as those institutions seeking admission, would be under observation.²⁵

Following a recommendation of its Executive Committee, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States (now the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools), in 1916, appointed a committee to submit a plan for a Commission on Institutions of Higher Education. The following year the plan was presented and accepted and the new Commission was directed to prepare a statement of standards which might be used to rate the members of the Association and other institutions of higher learn-

²³ *Ibid.*, XVI (1914), pp. 17-18.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, XVII (1915), p. 20.

²⁵ *Proceedings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools*, XIX (1914), p. 54.

ing in the Southern territory which might seek admission.²⁶ The first approved list of the Southern Association was not adopted until 1920.

In 1917 the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland (now the Middle States Association) made its first efforts to accredit the higher institutions with the adoption of the following motion:

That a special committee be appointed to consider the advisability of this Association's taking up the question of determining standards for colleges and universities in the district covered by this Association, and of classifying these institutions accordingly; and, if the committee considers it advisable, to suggest methods of procedure.²⁷

During this year, 1917, the last of the regional agencies, the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, was founded.

When the United States entered World War I it became apparent that there was a need for co-ordinating the educational resources of the country. In January, 1918, an "Emergency Council on Education" was created to place the resources of the educational institutions at the disposal of the country. Shortly after the founding of the Emergency Council it became clear that there was need for such an agency during peace as well as in time of war. Consequently, in July, 1918, the name of the organization was changed to the "American Council on Education."

During this same year, 1918, the North Central Association took a significant step in its accrediting procedure by arranging for the inspection of institutions. The executive committee appropriated \$200 for the expense of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education in making inspections. This enabled the Commission to observe the actual work of the college applying for membership.

In 1919 the Middle States Association created a Commission on Higher Education and adopted standards similar to those of the North Central Association.

The American Council on Education, in 1920, pointed out that there was much variation in the standards set up by the different

²⁶ G. E. Zook and M. E. Haggerty, *op. cit.*, p. 31.

²⁷ *Proceedings of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland*, XXXI (1917), p. 26.

accrediting associations, and suggested that "it would be advantageous to the American educational public if all classifying and standardizing bodies would adopt the same criteria." In the absence of such an agreement the Council published a list of colleges accredited by the Association of American Universities, the North Central Association, the Southern Association, and the University of California and suggested that foreign universities might "safely" accept a "well recommended" graduate of the institutions included in the list as a graduate student.²⁸

The following year the Council's Special Committee on Policy recommended, among other things, that the Council formulate common standards of higher educational institutions:

1. To remedy the existing diversity of standards and statements among standardizing agencies and the confusion arising therefrom.
2. To supply the lack of such statements in certain sections of the country.
3. To aid associations and institutions now compelled to deal with students from all parts of the United States, and also State Departments of Education dealing with certification of teachers.²⁸

In 1922 the Committee on College Standards formulated eight standards to be used as a guide by the accrediting agencies.²⁹ These standards tended to dominate the work of the accrediting agencies until 1934.

In 1927 the Southern Association, complying with a request of Negro institutions to undertake the work of accrediting Negro colleges, created a Committee on the Approval of Negro Schools. The Association adopted a system of dividing the Negro colleges into Class A and Class B, and in 1930 published its first list of Negro colleges.

PRESENT ACCREDITING METHODS

In 1934 the North Central Association adopted a new policy of accrediting institutions of higher learning through which it strove to recognize the individuality of a college. Rather than prescribing certain standards that a college must meet, the Association based eligibility for membership upon the "character of the institution

²⁸ Educational Record, II (October, 1921), pp. 154-155.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, III (July, 1922), pp. 210-214.

as a whole." An institution was judged in terms of the purposes it sought to serve.³⁰ The new procedures have been described as based on "qualitative" rather than "quantitative" standards. Institutions are judged by analyzing their status with respect to accredited colleges and universities on a series of some eighty criteria of institutional excellence.

At meetings of the National Association of State Universities and of the Land-Grant Colleges and Universities held in 1938 the practices of the accrediting agencies were severely attacked. These Associations contended that the task of supplying the information requested by the numerous accrediting agencies (many of which were professional) was exceedingly burdensome and expensive. While this report is not concerned with the professional accrediting agencies, the revolt of the Land-Grant Colleges and the State Universities necessitates pointing out that by the middle 1930's there were a considerable number of such organizations. The attack on the accrediting agencies by the above associations resulted in an attempt by the American Council on Education to eliminate the friction developing between the colleges and the accrediting agencies. The Council invited representatives of the various accrediting agencies and John J. Tigert, representing the National Association of State Universities and the Land-Grant Colleges and Universities and Samuel P. Capen, critic of the standardizing agencies, to attend a conference in Washington in April, 1939.

At this meeting Messrs. Capen and Tigert presented papers outlining their objections to the practices of the accrediting agencies and representatives of the accrediting agencies told something of the origin and purposes of their respective organizations. A general discussion followed. In his criticism of the accrediting agencies, Mr. Capen contended, among other things, that—

There are too many standardizing and accrediting bodies; far too many. . . . Two hundred agencies are too many. One hundred would be too many. Twenty would probably be too many. Ten, some of them being regional bodies, could accomplish every defensible purpose sought by the myriad of gadflies now drawing sustenance from the tortured flanks of higher education.³¹

³⁰ *North Central Association Quarterly*, III (April, 1934), pp. 419-424.

³¹ Samuel P. Capen, "Seven Devils in Exchange for One" (*American Council on Education Studies*, III, Series 1, No. 9, *Coordination of Accrediting Activities*, Washington: The American Council on Education, 1939), p. 11.

Mr. Tigert pointed out, among other things, that—

the costs of accrediting are becoming excessive. . . .

There is too much duplication in accrediting agencies. Some agencies operate in the nation, others in regions, and others in states. Another form of conflict . . . arises from the fact that some agencies accredit institutions, others colleges, departments, and narrow fields of subject matter. Some operate only on one level, while others operate on different levels.³²

The two papers were followed by a discussion in which the group agreed that proposals for improvement of the accrediting situation must be based on studies of the existing conditions. Consequently, they asked the President of the Council, George F. Zook, to have the group assembled again when such studies were completed.

The group, assembled at its second conference in October, 1940, decided to appoint a committee to attempt to develop a master schedule that would eliminate the extensive duplication existing in the information requested by the individual accrediting agencies.³³ In 1942 Mr. Zook reported that the committee had completed a tentative master schedule and planned to ask several accrediting agencies to consider it for joint adoption. The following year, 1943, Mr. Zook reported that after canvassing approximately thirty of the accrediting agencies it was decided that it did not appear feasible to consider the adoption of the master schedule at that time. The demands of war activities, he pointed out, had necessitated the curtailment of accrediting activities.

The committee, therefore, agreed to defer further work on this project for the time being and to await a more auspicious time to resume these efforts.³⁴

CONCLUSIONS

The fact that so many of the early American "colleges" were maintaining programs of doubtful academic level necessitated some means of classifying institutions of higher education. The United States Bureau of Education (now the Office of Education), performing its task of summarizing the educational activities of the country,

³² John J. Tigert, "Objectionable Practices of Accrediting Agencies" (American Council on Education Studies, III, Series 1, No. 9. *Coordination of Accrediting Activities*, Washington: The American Council on Education, 1939), pp. 26-27.

³³ Co-operation in Accrediting Procedures (American Council on Education Studies, V, Series 1, No. 14, Washington: The American Council on Education, 1941), pp. 52-53.

³⁴ Educational Record, XXIV (July, 1943), p. 272.

adopted a broad definition of "college" that eliminated some of the so-called colleges from its published list.

When students began to migrate from one college to another the colleges necessarily had to evaluate the students' credits. This situation contributed to the development of an interest in the ranking of institutions of higher learning. The agencies that were concerned with the problem, however, appeared to feel that it was the duty of the Federal Government to grade the colleges. When efforts to get the Government to undertake the task ran afoul of political considerations, the interested groups began to organize as accrediting agencies and to set up definite standards for their respective member-institutions to meet. The Association of American Universities and the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, with K. C. Babcock the central figure in the accrediting activities of both these Associations, were the pioneers in this effort.

By 1920 the standards of the different accrediting agencies varied so much that the American Council on Education, created in 1918, suggested that it would be advantageous to the educational public if all classifying and standardizing bodies would adopt the same criteria. In 1922 the Council recommended eight standards that tended to dominate the accrediting procedures of the various accrediting agencies for twelve years.

In 1934 the North Central Association adopted a new policy of accreditation through which an institution's individuality was recognized. This method of accrediting is used by the North Central Association at present and has served as a pattern for other accrediting agencies.

In 1938 the National Association of State Universities and the Land-Grant Colleges and Universities attacked the practices of the accrediting agencies. In order to eliminate the friction developing between the colleges and the accrediting agencies, the American Council on Education brought representatives of the two groups together in a series of conferences (the first in 1939; the second in 1940). It was decided during these conferences to draw up a master schedule that would eliminate the extensive duplication existing in the information requested by the individual accrediting agencies. The master schedule was completed, but demands of war activities necessitated the curtailment of accrediting activities and it was decided that it was not practicable to present the master schedule to the accrediting agencies at that time.

Veterans in a Four-Year Junior College

JOHN A. ANDERSON

UP TO November 1, 1945, 232 veterans of World War II had been admitted to Pasadena Junior College. Eighty-four of them were not high school graduates. This is a four-year school including grades 11 through 14. The absence of a hard and fast division between the twelfth and thirteenth grades has been somewhat of an advantage to returning veterans because it has enabled them to complete their high school work and possibly at the same time to begin some college work with students of comparable age.

It is the policy of the institution, so far as possible, to consider veterans as regular members of the student body, which, as a matter of fact, they are. This, we believe, will help them to achieve a normal adjustment to civilian status more quickly than any other policy. However, because of their special problems of adjustment, there are special services provided for them in counseling, social adjustment, and smaller classes with more individual instruction and opportunity for individuals to go ahead faster than the average student if they have the ability and desire to do so.

One of our regular counselors has been assigned as the counselor for returning veterans. He works closely with the Veteran Advisory Committee for the Pasadena area, making the work of this committee somewhat of a community project. During the summer, just before the opening of school, this counselor was on duty at the office of the Pasadena Area United States Employment Service. A letter of invitation was sent out to all discharged veterans in this area outlining our educational services. Many veterans called at the U.S.E.S. office in response to this invitation. Since the opening of school, this veterans' counselor has been stationed on the Junior College campus, devoting about three-quarters of his time to veterans.

The services which the counselor renders or makes available to veterans include vocational and educational aptitude and achievement tests, vocational and educational counseling, placement in a schedule of classes and help, where needed, in all phases of the veterans' contacts with the Veterans Administration representatives.

Veterans at the high school level have the same general problems

as those at the college level. Like other students, veterans may be divided into two general groups—those interested in terminal or vocational education and those working toward university admission. For those interested in vocational or terminal education only at either high school or college level, the following program is suggested:

Clock Hours	School of BUSINESS	School of TRADES AND TECHNOLOGY	OTHER AREAS
8 to 12	Accounting Business Administration Clerical General Office Merchandising Secretarial	Automotive Drafting Electrical Electronics Machine Shop Printing Radio Welding	Art Cosmetology Forestry
12	LUNCH		
1	Physical Education, Recreation, Rest, Study, Library, or Free		
2 to 4	Social Studies and/or English.....		

There are, of course, variations in the above schedule:

1. Vocational majors could pursue the 8 to 12 schedule all day, if they wish.
2. Veterans working toward a diploma could pursue the 2 to 4 schedule all day on an accelerated basis, or add other electives.
3. Those desiring a combination of these two objectives might pursue a program much as outlined from 8 to 4 daily.
4. Those who could not attend in the daytime could be provided for at night in the Extended Day classes as follows:
English and Social Studies—either one on Mon.—Wed. nights, or on Tues.—Thurs. nights, or enroll for all four nights, or alternate with vocational courses.

Emphasis is placed on scheduling veterans in regular classes if testing or previous records show them qualified. This is not always possible since the veteran has been out of school and may need refresher courses. The man who is trying to prepare himself for university admission or who needs special work in academic fields

may enroll in one- or two-hour classes in science, business, mathematics, English and social studies extending from 8:00 A.M. to 9:00 P.M. When possible, enrollments in these classes are kept small—not over 15. Within these areas of study the classes are conducted on an individual basis. Accomplishment is accented rather than clock hours per week. For example, in the English area whenever the student has achieved a level of competence acceptable for the twelfth grade diploma, he is given credit, if he does not already have it, for all required high school English up to that point. Enrollment in these special classes may be at any time during the year. One of the two bases of procedure is set by the veteran for himself: (1) to catch up and transfer to a regular class, or (2) to reach his objective in that area of study in this special section without transferring. The veterans discussed here do not include 130 men still in active service who have been graduated after leaving the institution, partly on credits earned in service courses or by correspondence work with the United States Armed Forces Institute.

Since this junior college, in common with most other public junior colleges, is expected to accept all who apply, in one status or another, the present veteran enrollment may well be a typical cross-section of all American young men coming home from the wars with an ambition to continue their education.

The following tables give the statistical facts about them:

ENROLLED THIS SEMESTER..... 232

SOURCE

Pasadena.....	95
California, outside of Pasadena.....	82
Outside of California.....	55

AGE DISTRIBUTION

16—1	24—12	35—1
17—7	25—10	36—2
18—14	26—10	39—1
19—25	27—7	40—1
20—34	28—5	41—1
21—37	29—1	42—1
22—30	33—1	46—1
23—25	34—2	48—1

Average Age..... 22.31

NATURE OF DISCHARGE

Medical.....	68
General.....	161
Over Age.....	1
Dependents.....	1
Under Age.....	1

STATUS AS VETERANS

Under Public Law 346.....	31
Under Public Law 16.....	34
California Veterans Law.....	5
Regular Students.....	162

GRADE IN SCHOOL			
Lower Division (grades 11-12)		Upper Division (grades 13-14)	
11-1	23	13-1	67
11-2	13	13-2	25
12-1	20	14-1	17
12-2	9	14-2	8
Unclassified	19	Post Graduates	1
	—	Unclassified	30
Total	84	Total	148

MAJOR			
Engineering	63	Architecture	3
General Academic	24	Law	3
Business Education	23	Journalism	2
Technology	23	Dentistry	1
High School	22	Geology	1
Art	10	Mortician	1
Mathematics	10	Optometry	1
Music	9	Pharmacy	1
Medicine	8	Veterinary Science	1
Forestry	6	Metallurgy	1
Auto Mechanics	5	Not Listed	11
Physical Education	3	ACADEMIC STATUS (as to previous grades):	
		Recommended	53; Non-Recommended
			179

The overwhelming choice of engineering among these returning service men, coupled with the fact that only one out of four of them has attained a B average in previous secondary school work, suggests the need of careful guidance as these men attempt the rigorous preparation necessary for professional courses in engineering. Inevitably many of them will fail to make the grade, but men of their age and maturity can hardly be denied the opportunity to try it. Many will probably shift to semi-professional technology courses after a semester or two and others may change to other professional fields. There is certainly room for some of the best ones in medicine, dentistry, architecture, law and pharmacy—fields which are now the choice of but one to eight out of the whole 232. Imagine but one dentist to 63 engineers!

An explanation of the popularity of engineering may be found in the fact that many of these men have been doing jobs in the service which were related to engineering—communications, radio, construction, navigation, engine repair and maintenance, and a number of other technical assignments which have given them a feeling of confidence in their ability to take hold and do things. The difficulty may be with the necessary broader background in the physical sciences and mathematics.

But even if a good proportion of these men win through to degrees in engineering, there will still be the problem of getting jobs as engineers when they are through. Unless there is a shift in emphasis, engineering may well be an overcrowded profession in a few years.

Our returning veterans are giving a rich experience. They are not too different from the regular run of students and most of them are making a happy adjustment to campus life. Their greater maturity and earnestness is proving, in the main, a good influence on other students. The percentage of problem students among them is definitely lower than in the non-veteran enrollment.

Four cases of high achievement by returning veterans with doubtful previous school records illustrate what some of them have accomplished so far. The names are not the real ones:

CARL GRANT—a man 51 years old who had served as a petty officer in the U. S. Navy and had been on active service in the present World War; had completed less than two years of high school; was conditionally admitted to the college level. First semester record:

Composition 51A	A
Public Speaking 51A	A
Sales 50	B
Health Education 65	B
Psychology 51A	C

ALFRED MOORE—a colored man 32 years of age with a medical discharge from the U. S. Marine Corps. Had been enrolled in the junior college twelve years ago with a consistent record of failure. The last previous contact I had with him was when I dismissed him from school for continued scholastic failure after he had attained his eighteenth birthday. He was readmitted with 13-2 grade status. His marks for first semester were:

Composition 51A	A
Health Education 65	B
Spanish 41A	A
Nat. Soc. Probs. 40	A
Soc. of Family 44	A

NELS THOMSEN—A native of Sweden, 35 years old, with a medical discharge from the U. S. Navy. He had no scholastic record at all, but reported that he had completed about three years of high

school work in a technical institute in Sweden. He was given conditional twelfth grade admission. Record for first semester:

Basic Mathematics IX	A
Accounting 21A	A
Business Law 21A	A
Typing 21A	A
U. S. History 2A	A

ROBERT A. LEWIS—28 years of age, discharged from the U. S. Marine Corps—disabled through several campaigns in South Pacific; walks on crutches. While attending our high school division 10 years ago Lewis made a C plus average with occasional D's. His record for first semester:

English 2AB	A
Literature 4A	A
U. S. Hist. 2AB	A
Accounting 21A	A
Business Law 21A	B
Intro. to Business 21A	A

These cases indicate the importance of a willingness on the part of school officials to take a chance on mature veterans whose educational background may be sketchy but who can demonstrate by tests or by classroom achievement that they have what it takes to succeed. It is no kindness to these men to lower standards, but we should not hesitate to by-pass some old established rules if they become useless road-blocks.

Vocational Guidance and Education— A National Need

A. M. TURRELL

THE FLOOD of returning war veterans to our junior colleges, colleges, and universities is calling attention in striking manner to one of the greatest inadequacies of our educational system in the United States. The veterans' interests in things vocational and technological have been sharpened by their war experiences, yet many of them do not have the abilities to pursue professional college and university courses, which they seem desirous of doing. This situation is but a repetition in aggravated form of the problem faced by schools prior to the war, but never really met.

Even though the totalitarian regimes will not prevail over the world for the next one thousand years, they have demonstrated the advantages of thoughtful and well-timed *use of all resources*—both human and material. Every true citizen of the United States decries the purposes for which these resources have been used in totalitarian states, but the value of bending all energies to an appointed end is evident.

FREEDOM FOR UNINTELLIGENT STUDENT-CHOICES OF VOCATIONS DOES NOT DIRECT AND CONSERVE HUMAN RESOURCES FOR NATIONAL NEEDS

One of the stumbling blocks to the efficient use of human materials lies in one of the foundation stones of our prized American way of life; namely, the freedom of choice and action with respect to those occupational channels in which we shall spend our lives. Can one imagine a totalitarian regime debating what to do about several hundred thousand workers out of a job when one industry shuts down for reconversion, while at the same time facing a shortage of applicants for workers in other industries?

The perennial and common lament of school and lay people alike is that too many young folk aspire to "white collar" jobs when considered either in relation to the numbers of such jobs available or in relation to the qualifications of youth for those jobs. Evidently,

there is, on the part of youth and adults alike, a widespread lack of appreciation of the opportunities available, coupled with a lack of understanding of just what is required for success. If we are to achieve anything like efficient management of human resources in relation to the jobs to be done and if we are to achieve it within the framework of democratic procedures, not an inconsiderable part of a plan of action must include an informative program looking to the education of both youth and adults in the realities of the occupational world.

Any national attack on this problem faces the danger of being labeled as a program to downgrade the ambitions of youth which in a democracy of rugged individuals is supposed to take as its motto: "There's always room at the top!" Determining the type and amount of vocational training to offer, staffing the program, and financing it, although a huge task, is relatively simple compared to the job of getting the right people in the right numbers to secure the right training program without resorting to conscription. Yet certain social and economic factors which have been coming to a head in the last twenty-five years make imperative an heroic attack on the problem.

THE SELECTIVE FUNCTION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE
UNITED STATES, ALTHOUGH STILL A DISTINCTIVE PURPOSE,
HAS ALTERED IN CHARACTER

Traditionally, our public schools have served too much to prepare young people for college or university for eventual entrance into the learned professions: law, medicine, or the ministry. The curriculum has been narrowly prescribed in terms of this purpose. The "bookish" or academic type of ability and interests were the chief requisites for success in schools of that day. Those students who had neither the inclination for such studies nor the particular type of ability demanded fell by the wayside. The selective function of the schools was chiefly to eliminate those not suited to the professions. The rich field of occupational life outside the professions was ignored, thus raising in the minds of students eliminated a false sense of values about the world of work which has persisted to this day in the minds of our students, their parents, and all citizens.

Now a larger percentage of children of school age is in school than was enrolled fifty years ago. A popular expression for this situation is that "all of the children of all the people are going to school." The characteristic that distinguishes this great mass of youth from those in school fifty years ago is the immense amount of dif-

ference among them. They possess greatly varied abilities, interests, and vocational outlooks. The preservation of our democratic society depends upon our seeing that these human resources are correctly appraised and wisely directed into those channels of usefulness most beneficial to their possessors and to society at large. The schools, therefore, still have responsibilities for the selection of youth, but on a broadly expanded basis. Instead of selecting and preparing for just one type of occupational life, they must perform this function for all vocations. Instead of being selective, *eliminative*, and developmental, they must be selective, *directive*, and developmental.

However, few public schools in the United States have fully realized this function in practice. True, the curriculum has been expanded and varied in an attempt to provide for this great variety of needs, interests, and abilities. Yet one of the major objectives of the schools appearing in *all lists* of educational principles—adjustment to vocational life—is far from being perfectly realized. Naturally, many factors contribute to this situation, but the schools can help alleviate two of them: (1) lack of the proper type and number of vocational training curricula, and (2) lack of understanding on the part of both youth and adults of the useful occupational outlets available to them.

EACH YOUTH NEEDS TO BE HELPED TO UNDERSTAND THE WORLD
OF WORK AND TO ACQUIRE THE BASIS FOR SELF-APPRAISAL IN
ORDER TO PLAN THAT OCCUPATIONAL LIFE IN WHICH HE
CAN MAKE HIS MAXIMUM CONTRIBUTION

When Adam made Cain an agriculturist and Abel a shepherd, there were two men and two occupations. The problems of vocational guidance and education must have been relatively simple. With this possible exception, there has never been a one-to-one relationship for society in general between job opportunities and human capacities. That is to say, there does not exist for each individual with certain needs, interests, and abilities a definite job demanding his particular constellation of potentials. Many individuals spend much or all of their lives in vocations which do not make demands on their maximum abilities and qualities.

"Each year about 1,750,000 boys and girls in the United States offer their services as beginning workers."¹ Some of these boys and

¹Reeves, Floyd W., in the Foreword to *Matching Youth and Jobs*, by Howard M. Bell, Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1940, p. v.

girls "know the requirements of the many kinds of jobs in American industry and business. Some of them have been trained in a skill requisite to the performance of an occupation or a group of occupations. But most of these young beginning workers have very little information about themselves as workers or about the world of work because they have had no vocational guidance or counseling."²

Not a small part of the program of occupational orientation is that of learning to live together without snobbishness. This part of the program needs to start in the elementary schools with the formative minds of youth. But it is not alone a problem for the schools, for we know from experience that youth could learn very well to live democratically together if oldsters did not intervene to impose an adult set of values. It is also true that "a man's occupation exerts a most powerful influence in assigning to him and to his immediate family their place in society, in deciding their place of residence, and in determining the occupational status of the children when they enter employment."³

In some manner, this phase of the program must reach and influence all people: children in elementary schools, youth in secondary schools, men and women in adult classes, the general body of adults in the community, all types of patterns of ability, and the handicapped as well as the so-called "normals."

PRESENT-DAY YOUTH MATURES MORE SLOWLY IN THE ABILITY TO
MAKE OCCUPATIONAL CHOICES. THEREFORE, MORE GUIDANCE
SHOULD BE PROVIDED BY SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

Several factors have been at work to produce this occupational immaturity of present-day youth. Longevity of the human race at one end of the scale and a declining birth rate at the other have produced a larger proportion of the older age group which monopolizes the vocational field. Child labor laws have restricted the early entrance of youth into jobs, which has been paralleled by raising the age limits of the compulsory school attendance laws. As a consequence, youth stays longer in school under parental supervision and is deprived of those experiences which "put him on his own" in the realm of making decisions.

² Ibid, p. v.

³ Anderson, H. Dewey, and Davidson, Percy E.: *Occupational Trends in the United States*, Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1940, p. 1.

Reeves points out in the foreword discussing work camps for youth that mass production today and mechanization of household tasks have taken from youth the experience of doing chores in the home which used to lay the foundations for work habits in most young people. The work camp is an attempt to give youth opportunity to learn something about manual work done in a group for the benefit of others.⁴

Remembering that before 1920, the people of the United States were primarily rural,⁵ this is another way of saying that youth today have not had the occupational experiences to aids them in dealing with problems involving plans and choices in this field. Their problems of job induction are more serious because, by and large, they do not know from experience what an employer has a right to expect of them.

Although the younger generation arrives late at occupational life, it has had increased possibilities for making choices in personal and social activities at a much earlier age. This training and experience have led them to accept as a matter of course the right to make decisions concerning their own lives in all fields. All the more reason then why they must be helped to secure the basis for making correct vocational plans. It would seem advisable for education, business, and industry to address themselves to the task of bridging the gap between inexperience and experience by some rather extensive plan of co-operative training for an almost illimitable number of occupations. What has been tried in isolated instances with so much satisfaction to all groups concerned needs to be enlarged on a more comprehensive, national scale.

TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES HAVE SHORTENED THE TRAINING
PERIOD REQUIRED FOR JOBS, THUS VASTLY INCREASING
THE IMPORTANCE OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PRO-
GRAMS WHICH EMPHASIZE OTHER ASPECTS THAN
TRAINING IN THE MANUAL OR SKILL
TECHNIQUES

Many jobs in industry can be prepared for in a few days' or a few weeks' time. There are many operative jobs for which training on the part of the school is out of the question so far as the skill aspect

⁴Holland, Kenneth, *Work Camps for College Students*, Washington, D.C.: American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, 1941.

⁵Anderson, H. Dewey, and Davidson, Percy E.: *Op. cit.*, p. 71.

of the work is concerned. Industry has broken down the workers' tasks to such a degree that a great body of semi-skilled production workers has resulted. Teamwork, ability to get along with other workers, and willingness to take orders play a tremendous part in deciding whether or not a person can hold his job. Numerous researches in the personnel field have demonstrated that in 80 per cent of the cases lack of these desirable personality reactions was the cause of loss of job rather than lack of the requisite manual skill to perform the assigned tasks.

Although jobs are becoming less specialized as regards technical skills required, there is a greater specificity of tasks and hence a greater variety of jobs from which to choose. This has added to the problems of the occupational orientation of youth. The schools not only need to continue complete training for many occupations as they have in the past, through the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen types of program, but need to undertake other types of training. There is an almost limitless number of occupations where co-operative relations must be established between schools, business, and industry. There are many others where no skill training can be given, but where aspects of personality development loom large in the vocational education program.

THE SCHOOLS, IN ATTEMPTING TO SAFEGUARD THE EQUALITY OF
OPPORTUNITY THROUGH EDUCATION, FACE THE DANGER OF
RAISING IN THE MINDS OF YOUTH FALSE HOPES THAT
ABILITY AND CIRCUMSTANCES WILL PREVENT THEM
FROM REALIZING

All will agree that equality of opportunity does not mean identity of opportunity. Equal educational opportunity will be vouchsafed youth when all are granted the schooling necessary to insure maximum development for all their potentialities. Hence, one of the greatest limitations to attaining this ideal will lie in the failure of the schools to devise curricula adapted to greatly varied abilities, interests, and vocational outlooks.

But it is not alone a problem of providing adequately through the curricula for these varied potentialities. Heretofore, more social prestige has been attached to the professions and the so-called "white collar" jobs. A common aspiration of members of a democratic society is to rise from lower to higher economic levels. Youth wants

to "get on," and asks itself, "How can I get to the top?" This is a fundamental in the American way of life. We would not change the urge but its realization could be brought nearer if youth's question could be redirected to: "What of the world's work that needs to be done can I do best?"

A specific illustration may be given of an attempt to aid youth in more realistic choices. The survey undertaken prior to the establishment of the Timken Vocational School recommended an enlargement of the counseling and guidance program to attempt to overcome discrepancies between student occupational choices and local occupational opportunities. It also recommended that more boys and fewer girls should be encouraged to go into the commercial curriculum. Interviews with employers revealed specific types of training that their various employees needed and these are included in the recommendations.⁶

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION FACES REORGANIZATIONAL PROBLEMS IN ATTEMPTING TO EDUCATE FOR ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY

To prevent youth from *drifting* into jobs with consequent wasteful shifting and *chance* satisfactory adjustment, a positive program of prevention must be instituted by the public schools of the United States. Many school systems in the country are performing a notable piece of work in this field already, but that which is made possible for the most favored must become the common heritage of all American youth.

In order to realize this ideal, some of the following situations and problems must be met.

(1) Steps that are being taken to modify the traditional school organization must be continued and speeded. Many school systems are still operating with eight years' elementary and four years of high school. Some have added two years of junior college to this span. A substantial number have introduced the junior high school into a reorganized 6-3-3-2 system. A very few have reorganized on the 6-4-4 basis. Some school administrators by the addition of the nursery school and the kindergarten are visualizing a 4-4-4-4 scheme for the future. In any event, the junior college must be taken into the public school system as an integral part of secondary education.

⁶ Benedict, Herbert W., *Canton Occupational Survey*, Board of Education, Canton, Ohio, 1938, 316 pp.

(2) There should be a curricular reorganization at this upper secondary level which would make provision for two basic aims: general education for citizenship and special preparation for those with future educational aims or terminal education for those whose formal schooling will end at about the age of eighteen or twenty. These two phases of the curriculum—general and special education—are not to be thought of as distinct elements in curriculum, but are integral parts of a well-rounded curriculum.

(3) So that the right type of special preparation may be provided, and for the correct number of students, there will have to be a continuous study of occupations and the needs for new workers in these occupations. This is a problem demanding nation-wide attack. M. M. Chambers gives a brief summary of ways in which communities should secure information about its youth and the conditions affecting it and suggests ways in which these needs can be met. Data from the various youth surveys are interspersed in the discussion.⁷

(4) In certain areas of sparse population, education at the upper secondary levels is lacking. Some reorganization of administrative and attendance units will need to be effected to extend the opportunities we have been describing to students living in those areas. The ultimate welfare of our nation demands the conservation of ability wherever it may appear.

(5) Finally, to make these opportunities effectively free for all youth, tuition, books, supplies, transportation, and—in the case of children from low economic levels—even maintenance may have to be provided in some manner.

The foregoing list of problems to be met is so forbidding that it would seem as though only a program conceived on a national scale has a chance of making more than a dent on some of them.

⁷ Chambers, M. M., *The Community and Its Young People*, American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.: March 1940.

High School Teachers' Marks as Indicators of College Success

BEN ASHMORE

PURPOSE

IT SHALL be the purpose of this study to determine how certain factors involved in the high-school program of Model High School, of Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College, indicate the subsequent educational success or failure of its graduates.

Briefly, the study undertakes to answer the following questions: (1) How well may predictions be made on the basis of high-school records as compared with predictions based on first and second semester averages? (2) How well do high-school marks in certain subjects indicate subsequent college marks in similar subjects? (3) What high-school subject marks, plus the factor of intelligence, will best indicate first year college scholarship?

The findings of this study will serve two distinct purposes: (1) Information will be secured which will prove of value in the educational guidance of present and future students of the school; (2) the findings will enable the author to discuss accurately with his staff and prospective teachers the results of the teaching techniques used in the school as they are indicated by the college successes or failures of the graduates of the school.

SOURCES OF DATA AND METHODS USED

All data used in this study have been taken from the permanent record cards of the demonstration school graduates, and from photostatic copies of the corresponding college record, taken from the files of the registrar of the home college. Records were obtained for graduates of the classes from 1931 to 1940, inclusive.

A list of the graduates from the high school was made and checked with the files of the registrar. It was determined in this manner the exact number of graduates who attended Eastern.

Point standings for all subjects were computed according to the system used by the college. A grade of A was given three quality points for each hour or unit of work: grades of B were given two

quality points: grades of C were given one quality point: grades of D were not given any quality points but hours or credits earned were counted in the total for graduation. "The standing of the student is defined as the ratio of his total number of quality points to his total number of hours credit."¹

Point standings were computed for the amount of college work attempted by each student. The point standings for the first and second semesters, and the first year were computed for three groups considered in detail in this paper. Group I was composed of graduates from 1931 to 1934: Group II, graduates from 1937 to 1940: and, Group III, graduates from Group I who graduated from college.

The average mark in each high-school subject group was compared with college average marks in similar subject groups to determine the difference in the high-school marks over the college marks. This information was recorded for the total group to give an "overview" of the high-school record in comparison with the corresponding college record.

The high-school records of the three particular groups were correlated with first and second semester and first year college averages to determine the period of college work which correlated most highly with the high-school records of the group. The first semester college records of these three groups were then correlated with their second semester records and compared with the correlations obtained with the high-school records.

Scores made on tests of mental ability, which were taken from the high-school records, were then correlated with college marks for the first and second semester and the first year.

The four high-school subjects under study were correlated with first year college averages in similar subject groups and with general first year averages. Multiple coefficients were found with college average as the criterion of success and the four high-school subjects and intelligence as contributing factors.

The Pearson product-moment method of calculating coefficients of correlation was used in the computation of the zero order coefficients. Partial and multiple coefficients were determined by using formulae devised for this purpose which may be found in texts of statistical methods.²

¹ Eastern Kentucky Review, 24: 38-39, July, 1943.

² Dennis H. Cooke, *Minimum Essentials of Statistics*, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936. pp. 172-179.

The subject fields under consideration have been reduced to four, namely: (1) English; (2) mathematics; (3) science; (4) social studies. The predictive value of these subject fields with the factor of intelligence was determined by correlating them with first and second semester grades, and grades for the entire first year of college for three groups of students.

All closely related subjects have been grouped together and designated by one expression; either English, mathematics, science, or social studies. English includes grammar, literature, and public speaking. Mathematics includes all college mathematics, teacher's arithmetic, and statistics. Social studies include all history, government, and sociology.

All data have been handled in the form of point standings with the exception of the measures of intelligence which were expressed as intelligence quotients.

SCOPE

The study has been confined to Model High School and Eastern Teachers College, and all data are applicable only to this situation.

The instructors who have assigned the marks under consideration are above average and their tenure is practically assured. Forty per cent of the present staff have been connected with the school in similar positions for the full ten-year period covered by this study. Sixty per cent have been working in similar capacities for eight or more years and some of the earlier instructors have had students in their high school classes and later have had the same students in college classes. These things condition the study to a certain extent; therefore, the relation to the local situation is stressed.

Graduates with less than two years of high school work at Model have not been included in this study.

SCHOLASTIC RECORDS OF MODEL HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

Before any detailed analysis of individual high-school and college records was made, information was tabulated relative to the entire group of graduating pupils. A comparison of their high-school and college records is made by group comparison which shows the quality of work done at each level.

The average mark for each high-school subject group was calculated, using the point standings which had been previously prepared and recorded on cumulative data sheets. Similar averages were com-

puted for the corresponding college subject group marks for all students who entered college from the high school.

These mean scores were then compared as to size and the differences recorded as average increases, or average decreases. The standard deviation of each group was calculated to show the range of scores at each level of instruction.

This information is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
SCHOLASTIC AVERAGES FOR HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE WORK LISTED
BY SUBJECT GROUPS WITH NUMBER, STANDARD DEVIATION,
DIFFERENCE, AND CRITICAL RATIO

Subject Group	High School			College			Difference	Sigma Difference	Critical Ratio
	No.	Mean	SD	No.	Mean	SD			
English	134	1.35	.68	129	1.43	.55	+.08	.07	1.10
Mathematics	134	1.44	.73	98	1.31	.81	-.13	.10	1.30
Science	134	1.62	.70	121	1.34	.72	-.28	.09	3.04
Social Studies	134	1.51	.67	117	1.49	.65	-.02	.085	.23
Commerce	109	1.25	.80	83	1.49	.65	+.25	.098	2.55
Language	112	1.53	.80	44	1.63	.40	+.10	.092	1.08
Industrial Arts	73	1.75	.85	13	2.15	.45	+.40	.15	2.67
Home Arts	64	1.70	.87	18	2.92	.56	+.22	.15	1.46
Miscellaneous	43	1.58	.80	127	1.56	.52	-.02	.12	.16
Total (Average)	134	1.46	.58	134	1.49	.55	+.03	.07	.43

Table 1 shows average high-school marks ranging from 1.25 to 1.75 with college averages ranging from 1.31 to 2.15. This would indicate, roughly, that college marks averaged higher than high school ratings. High school means are higher in the practical arts courses than in the other subject fields, although science marks are consistently high. This same situation exists at the college level except for the science marks. Practical arts courses show higher averages than others, while science scores drop to 1.34 which is next to the lowest recorded.

The difference in the means, as shown in column four, Table 1, are small with the exception of those shown for science, commerce, industrial arts, and home arts; none shows a difference of .50 of one grade interval. The plus and minus differences are about evenly divided: six plus and four minus.

By comparing the mean standings of the group, or by examining the mean difference column, student marks average higher in col-

lege in English, commerce, language, industrial arts, home arts, and total average. Lower marks are indicated in college mathematics, science, social studies, and the miscellaneous subjects.

This situation holds true only for the mean comparison. Individual differences were found ranging from -2.00 to $+1.00$ in science; -1.83 to $+1.20$ in English; -1.50 to $+1.33$ in mathematics; and from -1.71 to $+1.67$ in social studies.

Group differences shown in Table 1 fall below a critical ratio of three, except for the science averages. The remaining differences are not entirely due to chance, however, as Cooke,³ explains in his table of critical ratios. A critical ratio of 1.10, as in English, indicates that the chances are about 86 out of 100 that the difference is greater than zero and in the direction indicated.

This method of comparison does not take into consideration the individual records of the group other than expressing them as integral parts of the composite average. For predictive purposes the information would have little value for individual cases except to express the general trend of the total group of which the individual is a part. For this reason further comparisons, appearing in this study, will involve the use of correlation coefficients. Further consideration is justified only for four subject groups; namely, English, mathematics, science, and social studies.

COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION OF HIGH SCHOOL AVERAGE WITH FIRST YEAR COLLEGE AVERAGES

In an attempt to answer the first question set forth in this study, correlation coefficients have been calculated for high school averages with first and second semester college averages and averages for the entire first year of college. These coefficients were then compared with the coefficients of correlation derived from first and second semester college averages, for the same groups of students, and are shown in the following tables.

It may be seen from Table 2 that the relationship between high-school average and first year college average is slightly higher than that between the former and either the first or second semesters. This is true for all groups. All are sufficiently high to indicate a rather definite relationship between the two school records. (P. E. range for coefficient was .03 to .05.)

³Dennis H. Cooke, *op. cit.*, page 249.

Little significance is attached to the differences in size of the coefficients as shown in the previous table except for Group II, which has a coefficient of .72 for the first semester, .79 for the

TABLE 2
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HIGH-SCHOOL AVERAGE AND COLLEGE MARKS FOR FIRST SEMESTER, SECOND SEMESTER, AND FIRST YEAR.
GROUPS I, II, AND III

Group	First Semester	Second Semester	First Year
I	.80	.81	.83
II	.72	.79	.89
III	.83	.85	.86

second semester, and .89 for the first year average. This fact, plus the slightly higher coefficients found for the other groups, would indicate that possibly a higher relationship exists between high-school averages and first year college averages, under the conditions of this study, than between either the former and first or second semester averages.

Further importance is attached to the high-school record as a predictive factor when the correlation coefficients between first and second semester college averages are compared with the coefficients between the high-school averages and similar periods of college work.

TABLE 3
COMPARISON OF CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR FIRST SEMESTER AND SECOND SEMESTER COLLEGE MARKS, HIGH-SCHOOL AVERAGE MARKS AND SECOND SEMESTER COLLEGE MARKS, AND HIGH-SCHOOL AVERAGE MARKS AND FIRST YEAR COLLEGE MARKS
FOR GROUPS I, II, AND III

Group	First Semester College and Second Semester College	High School Average and Second Semester College	High School Average and First Year College
I	.75	.81	.83
II	.81	.79	.89
III	.87	.85	.86

High-school average marks show a slightly higher correlation coefficient with second semester college marks for Group I, and slightly lower coefficients for Groups II and III, than the coefficients

between first and second semester college marks. These data from Table 3 tend to give additional weight to the high-school averages as predictive factors since their relationship with corresponding periods of college work is practically as good as that of the first semester and the same period marks. The coefficients between high-school average and first year college average are higher than those obtained by correlating first semester and high-school averages with the second semester averages. (P. E. range for coefficients was .03 to .04.)

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTELLIGENCE AND FIRST YEAR COLLEGE AVERAGES

The superiority of high-school averages over intelligence test scores as predictive factors is illustrated by the coefficients obtained for

TABLE 4
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTELLIGENCE AND COLLEGE MARKS FOR FIRST SEMESTER, SECOND SEMESTER, AND FIRST YEAR AVERAGE FOR GROUPS I, II, AND III

Group	First Semester	Second Semester	First Year
I	.45	.52	.62
II	.50	.48	.54
III	.67	.62	.65

the same group of students between intelligence quotients and first semester, second semester, and first year college averages.

Table 4 shows that the factor of intelligence correlates more highly with first year average scholarship for two of the three groups than with either the first or second semesters. Group I has a coefficient considerably higher for this period but Groups II and III show practically the same relationship throughout the first year of college work. (P. E. range for the coefficients was .06 to .08.)

Since high-school averages and intelligence correlated more highly with first year college average than with either the first or second semester college marks, further correlations in this study have been made on the basis of first year college average only. Group III has been dropped, since the relationships for this group have been practically the same as those for the other groups.

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BY SUBJECT GROUPS

Correlation coefficients have been determined for four subject groups only: English, mathematics, science, and social studies. These four subjects were found to be the most representative on the basis of percentage of continuing enrollment from high-school to college.

Scores in each high-school subject group, which are given special attention in this study, were correlated with scores in similar subjects at the college level. This was done to determine how well high-school marks in certain subjects indicate subsequent college marks.

TABLE 5
COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN HIGH SCHOOL MARKS AND
FIRST YEAR COLLEGE MARKS FOR GROUPS I AND II

College Subject	High-School English		High-School Mathematics		High-School Science		High-School Social Studies	
	I	II	I	II	I	II	I	II
English	.81	.60	.59	.53	.60	.64	.64	.58
Mathematics	.76	.76	.82	.81	.61	.81	.58	.68
Science	.76	.46	.78	.53	.66	.68	.48	.57
Social Studies	.72	.80	.57	.73	.31	.87	.74	.65
First Year Average	.79	.75	.55	.66	.48	.79	.61	.68

Coefficients were determined for first year college average, also. These coefficients were used in the calculation of multiple coefficients for high school subjects and first year average which appear in later parts of this study.

It may be seen from Table 5 that high-school English marks would indicate first year college English marks considerably better than any other subject for Group I and slightly less than high-school science for Group II. High-school science would appear to be the second best indicator of college English.

High-school mathematics marks more nearly approximate college mathematics scores than any of the other three. Mathematics is slightly superior for Group I and about the same as science for Group II. English and science seem to have about equal value in determining college mathematics grades. English is better for Group I and science for Group II.

For all practical purposes high-school science scores and high-school mathematics scores indicate college science marks equally well

for both groups. Their average rank would be the same if ranked in order of highest correlation. Group I, English, correlated about as highly as high-school mathematics with college science and both were higher than high-school science coefficients. Group II, however, produced highest correlations with high-school science and college science. The correlation with mathematics was slightly lower than that with science, while English showed the lowest coefficient of all subjects for this group.

The situation regarding the prediction of college social studies is a bit confusing. For Group I, high-school social studies and high-school English have correlation coefficients of .74 and .72, respectively. For Group II, high-school science scores more nearly approximate college social studies marks with English second and high-school social studies lowest of all.

College first year average is best indicated by English for Group I and by high-school science for Group II. High-school English is emphasized, however, in the relation to the average by the high correlation obtained for both groups. Later multiple correlations of college average, intelligence, and English, were found to be higher than those between the first two and high-school science.

The data presented seem to warrant the statement that for the total group college English is best predicted by the single factor, high-school English. College mathematics is best determined by high-school mathematics. College science is best determined by either high-school mathematics or high-school science. College social studies are best determined by the single factor, high-school English.

The lack of a definite trend in size of the coefficients presented in Table 5, however, would perhaps indicate that for most of the college subjects studied, one high-school subject will indicate first year college marks about as well as another. Emphasis is placed upon high-school English by virtue of the high correlation shown with all college subject groups and college average.

MULTIPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

In order to determine what high-school subject group marks, plus the factor of intelligence, will best indicate first year college average, multiple correlation coefficients were calculated. General first year average is the criterion of achievement. Marks for each high school subject group and intelligence are the contributing factors.

Intercorrelations were determined for these factors and the general first year average. High correlation coefficients of individual subject groups with average might be considerably lower when combined with one or more of the other factors. This would be true if an extremely low correlation was obtained for any subject with intelligence, or other subject groups used in combination with it.

To increase the comprehension of the multiple coefficients shown, particular subject groups have been designated by number. These numbers and explanation follow:

<i>Subject Group</i>	<i>Number</i>
College Average	1
Intelligence	2
High School English	3
High School Social Studies	4
High School Mathematics	5
High School Science	6

Of the prognostic factors considered when taken alone, it appears that English has the greatest predictive value of the four subjects (r_{13}) except for science, Group II (r_{16}). Social studies correlates more highly (r_{14}) when considered alone than any other of the remaining subject groups with the one exception, science, as mentioned.

TABLE 6
ZERO-ORDER AND MULTIPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR HIGH SCHOOL SUBJECT GROUPS AND INTELLIGENCE WITH FIRST YEAR COLLEGE AVERAGE

First Year College Average as Measure of Achievement		
Factors	Group I	Group II
r_{12}	.62	.54
r_{13}	.79	.75
r_{14}	.61	.68
r_{15}	.55	.66
r_{16}	.48	.79
$R_{1.23}$.85	.80
$R_{1.24}$.75	.80
$R_{1.25}$.74	.70
$R_{1.26}$.68	.79
$R_{1.234}$.86	.83
$R_{1.235}$.79	.80
$R_{1.236}$.80	.83
$R_{1.2345}$.86	.83
$R_{1.2346}$.88	.85

The important consideration here, however, is to what extent the addition of each of several factors will increase the size of the coefficient.

The addition of English to intelligence (2 and 3 taken together) increases the reliability of the prediction from .62 to .85 for Group I, and from .54 to .80 for Group II. The addition of social studies (4) to intelligence does not show as high an increase as the addition of English but does raise the multiple coefficient to a higher figure (.75 and .80) than the addition of either science (6) or mathematics (5).

When factors 2, 3, and 4 are taken together the correlation is increased a very small amount over 2 and 3 together. In other words, the addition of 4 to 2 and 3, while increasing the coefficient, probably does not increase the reliability enough to warrant its use as a prediction factor.

The addition of mathematics and science (5 and 6) to 2, 3, and 4 increases the coefficient only a small amount, which would indicate that there are many other factors which influence the first year standing besides the ones included in this study.

It appears then, that for all practical purposes, the first year average for the college students considered in this study can be predicted about as well on the basis of their intelligence rating and their scores in high-school English, as upon these two factors and others, such as marks in social studies, science, and mathematics.

SUMMARY

An attempt has been made to answer the three main questions proposed in the beginning of the study. First, how well may predictions be made on the basis of high-school records as compared with predictions based on first and second semester college averages? It is shown in Table 2 that the coefficient of correlation of high-school average with first year college average is higher than that between the former and either the first or second semesters. This was true for all groups. The data in Table 3 shows that the coefficient of correlation of high-school averages with first year college averages is higher than the coefficient obtained by correlating first semester college average with second semester average. This would indicate that the high-school record predicts first year college average better than first semester averages predict second semester averages.

Second, how well do high-school marks in certain subject groups indicate subsequent college marks in similar subjects? As is to be expected, high-school English marks are better indicators of college English than are any other subjects. High-school science marks appear to be the second best indicator of college English. College mathematics grades are better indicated by high-school mathematics grades than by any other subject under consideration for Group I, but high-school science scores indicate college mathematics marks equally as well as high-school mathematics marks for Group II. College science marks are indicated better by high-school science and high-school mathematics marks than by any other group of subjects. Group I science marks are better determined by high-school mathematics and high-school English marks than by high-school science scores, but Group II science marks are better indicated by high-school science marks than by high-school English.

High-school social studies and high-school English marks have about equal value in determining college social studies marks for Group I. For Group II, however, college social studies are best indicated by high-school science marks with English as the second best indicator, and high-school social studies lowest of all.

First year college average is best indicated by high-school English marks for Group I and by high-school science marks for Group II. The averages for the two groups would tend to give the English scores more weight than any of the other subjects.

It may be concluded from Table 6 that first year college scholarship may be predicted about as well by the two factors intelligence and English as by these two and any other single subject group. The correlation coefficient obtained for intelligence and English with first year average was .85 for Group I, and .80 for Group II. The fact that all four subjects together produced a correlation of .88 for Group I, and .85 for Group II would indicate that first year scholarship may be predicted about as well by these two as these in combination with the other three subject averages.

The Genesis of a Registrar*

ALFRED H. PARROTT

I BESPEAK your patience if in this narrative, the ego appears rather frequently but after all what I have to say is essentially autobiographic.

I start with the statement that back at the beginning of the century and for many years thereafter, registrars were really Topsyies who just grew up. Quite generally they were regular teachers who had had shoved onto them the periodic recording of credits as students accumulated them. Some had been shanghaied from comfortable academic berths (such was my case); some came in through friendly influence in administrative boards that could find no other job for them. The job itself had not been analyzed nor organized and most registrars were just floundering around doing tasks that nobody else on the campus wanted to do. I recall that several years after the American Association of Collegiate Registrars had been organized, even to the period when the automobile had evolved into a machine that needed front and rear protection, Mr. Espenshade of Penn State likened the registrar to the bumpers of an automobile. He was expected to take all of the campus jolts, front and back.

In those early years, I ran into two collisions that materially affected my thinking as to the functions of a registrar and urged me to action. Once the president of the college upon leaving for an extended absence from the campus, gave me oral instructions to effect the transfer of the use of certain space from the department of mathematics, which made only very occasional use of it, to the department of commerce which was rapidly expanding and really needed the space. The need of the transfer seemed to me so urgent and reasonable that I never questioned it. There were involved, however, departmental jealousies and clashes of personality of which I was not aware and so I had not adequately prepared myself when at the next meeting of the College Council, the head of the department of mathematics protested the transfer with terrific heat and passion and then moved: "Be it resolved by the College Council that

* Paper presented before the North Central Association of College Registrars, October, 1945.

the functions of the registrar are purely clerical." Over my explanation that I was simply carrying out the president's instruction and my request that action be deferred until after the president's return, the Council voted unanimously for the resolution, and from the enthusiasm they all displayed I felt they all had definite convictions in the matter. Probably back of that enthusiasm was another matter. In trying to make the job mean something and having had regular need for the information, I had devised a form that required each member of the teaching staff to file with me at each mid-term a list of the courses he was teaching, the number of lecture and laboratory periods for each course, the enrollment in each course and the class room being used. At this particular meeting of the Council, this device was vigorously denounced as "Clock Punching", and so, more significantly, at a subsequent meeting of the Council when the president was present and had asked to have the resolution expunged, his request was just as definitely rejected. The Council still wanted a clerk, and incidentally that resolution still stands.

But inconsistently, the Council at this same meeting placed with the registrar the responsibility for evaluating transcripts of transfer students. Now this definitely was not a clerical job. It evidently was one of those that no member of the Council wanted.

I wonder if any of you have had occasion to work on the transcripts of those days; if you know what they were, or, better, what they were not. Generally they came on a letter-head and gave merely a list of subjects with final grades. Algebra was algebra but whether it was secondary or college, you could not tell. Literature was literature and whether it was English or American, Shakespeare or Milton, you couldn't tell. Whether the class had met once or six times each week, twelve weeks, eighteen or thirty-six weeks you couldn't tell. What part of the course had been lecture and what part laboratory, how long was the class period and what was the grading system were not revealed. Fortunately, "Honor Points" had not then been invented.

This has probably all been very dull to all of you, but this is the picture as it developed for me and as you will see from the minutes of the early meetings from which I shall presently quote, it was very much the picture that faced the other registrars of the day. Anyway, it was the picture that spurred me on to call that first meeting at Detroit, Michigan in August 1910.

At that meeting, after the organization was completed, the first motion was one by Mr. Conn of the University of Illinois: "That a tabular statement of the duties of the several registrars be made." This tabulation revealed that registrars were:

1. Examiners, giving entrance examinations and passing on credentials both for freshman and for advanced standing.
2. Recorders of student grades and credits.
3. In charge of correspondence with prospective students.
4. In charge of attendance records.
5. In charge of "Rosters" or Schedules,—instructional programs.
6. Responsible for the publication of catalogs and circulars.
7. Responsible for discipline and for the administration of faculty regulations.
8. Secretary of the Faculty and Secretary of the Board of Trustees.

But the Question Box for the day is more revealing. Here it is:

1. What are the duties of the registrar? Does it tend toward efficiency and economy to include under this office such functions as Recorder of the Faculties, Secretary of the Alumni Association, Accountant, Secretary, University Editor, Chief Mailing Clerk?
2. What is the best system of keeping in touch with alumni? How often is the alumni list printed?
3. How do you get prompt returns from instructors of student standings at the end of the term?
4. Is the registrar the student adviser or do you have an adviser system? If you do, who are they and what are their functions? What is your method of handling?
5. What is the best method of dealing with absences? late registrations? absences due to holidays?
6. What is the best method of getting in touch with freshmen?
7. What is the best system for keeping information in regard to positions for graduates?
8. What notices relative to student standing should be sent to parents? Should such statements be sent to the principal of the school from which the student came?
9. What is the proper function of the office in regard to advising a student as to electives?

From the above it is to be inferred that registrars were serving as accountants, secretaries of the faculties, secretaries of the alumni associations, secretaries of the boards of trustees, institutional editors,

directors of student employment, deans of men or deans of women, advisers, and finally as chief mailing clerks.

After thinking this over for a year, Mr. Espensshade, whom I have mentioned above, moved: "that a committee be formed to study the possibility of delimiting the functions of the office of the registrar."

On the matter of transcripts, the meeting only got so far as a motion from Mr. Andrews of the University of Vermont; "that it be the sense of this meeting that we agree upon furnishing each other with as definite and full information as possible in the case of transference of students."

The second annual meeting of the association came up with a question box that included all of the questions that I have listed above and added many others, one or two of which are suggestive as to the undetermined character of the registrar's functions:

1. In your "follow-up" system, how long is it advisable to continue a name when you are able to get no responses to your letters? What matter do you use in your follow-up?
2. Have you a working system designed to uphold standards of scholarship?
3. What are the duties of a registrar in respect to classification?
4. Is it feasible to omit long examinations?
5. What are the advantages of an alumni association?
6. What is the most economical and at the same time the most serviceable means of distributing college literature?
7. Is the whole or half holiday or none at all the most desirable?
8. How many class appointments each week in each course give the best results?

The third annual meeting came back to the Espensshade resolution and produced a very competent paper by Mr. William Addison Hervey, Registrar of Columbia University, in which he listed the functions of the registrar's office as follows:

1. Registration and Records—always his primary function.
2. Alumni Secretary—only in the smaller institutions.
3. The Secretary—involving matters of general information, general inquiries, follow-up systems, etc. He should be an intermediary between the president and the public. Should be separated from the registrar's office except in the smaller institutions.
4. Recorder of the Faculties—a function for either the Registrar or the Secretary.

5. College Editor—more properly the function of the Secretary.
6. Accountant or Bursar—never the function of a Registrar.
7. Class and Examination Schedules—properly a function of the Registrar because of the absolute departmental impartiality expected of him.
8. Admissions—routine admissions properly a duty of the Registrar. Advanced status should be determined by the Director of Admissions since the rush periods for admission and registration coincide and the Registrar could give adequate consideration to transfer student records only to the neglect of his own primary function.
9. University Editor—for either the Secretary or the Registrar although preference goes to the Registrar, again on the basis of impartiality but even more because his need for detailed and exact knowledge of what the several schools are offering and how they are functioning equips him better. Then in the case of the Directory all the needed information should be a part of his records.
10. Certification of Candidates for Degrees—the Registrar only, subject in special cases to conference with the proper dean.
11. Above all, the Registrar's office should combine efficient administration with co-operative service to all members of the staff and to all students. Particularly if he is Secretary of the Faculties, he should be letter perfect on faculty regulations and members of the staff and of the student body will constantly appeal to him as to what is the rule in the matter and by either group he will be asked to interpret such regulations. Matters of eligibility are such a point in question.
12. Student Elections—properly conducted under the supervision of the Registrar's office, again matters of eligibility and impartiality.
13. Reports and Statistics—definitely a function of the Registrar so far as concerns enrollments in schools and classes, grade distributions and even faculty teaching loads.

Mr. Hervey was speaking as the Registrar of Columbia University where numbers and experience had determined the proper allocation of the numerous responsibilities that had developed. He summarized the registrar's function as "*Non Multa, sed Multum.*" His analysis I believe set the pattern for many a registrar's office and certainly elevated the office far above the plane of clerk. This was the first definite step toward making the registrar's position a profession.

The second problem—that of transcripts—was discussed at the Third Annual Meeting but no definite results were achieved until the

Tenth Annual Meeting in 1920 when Mr. E. B. Pierce of the University of Minnesota, as chairman of a special committee, submitted a form that provided for the following data, which the committee had agreed was essential:

1. The name of the institution.
2. The full name of the applicant.
3. The method and date of admission.
4. Entrance units enumerated with their sources.
5. The Collegiate Record:
 - a. Departmental name and course number.
 - b. Descriptive title of the course.
 - c. Semester or term hours of credit.
 - d. Grade
6. Key to grading system.
7. Total number of credits earned.
8. Total number of credits required for graduation.
9. Status of student (honorable dismissal, under censure, graduated, etc.)

So finally in ten years, the primary purposes of that first meeting were accomplished. There have since in Association meetings been many revivals of the transcript question and in fact I recall that as recently as our regional meeting at Brookings in '38 or '39, Mr. West who had succeeded Mr. Pierce discussed the matter in considerable detail. However, I believe that Mr. Pierce's suggestions have set the pattern for all registrars up to the development of the photostatic processes and personally I wish we were sending out photostatic copies of the transcripts prepared in the Pierce manner rather than of our permanent records.

One of the early members of the Association was Mr. Ezra L. Gillis, Registrar of the University of Kentucky. His particular interest was to make the work of the registrar truly a profession and I believe that his was the greatest contribution that we have received in this direction in building up a major in education that recognized registrar practice, even to making special scholarships available for his office. Many of the products of his curriculum are registrars today. Yearly at the national meetings, he directed a two-hour evening program that was pointed toward the professional building up of young or new registrars. His work in a very large and real way is responsible for the professional recognition that is now universally accorded the registrar's office.

Our organization—The American Association of Collegiate Registrars. According to the latest report of our secretary, we have a membership of 874. We are accounted as one of the largest of the national professional educational associations. Unlike the Association of American Universities or the American Association of Colleges, we do not limit our membership to any specific group or type of institution and unlike the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and its sister associations, we do not limit ourselves to specific areas; in fact we include some Canadian institutions. We draw no racial discriminations. Under the national organization we have twelve areas, each supervised by a member of the association's Committee on Regional Associations. In each area there are one or more regional associations, just as in our area, the Eighth, we have two regional associations. In all there are twenty-seven regionals, presumably each functioning just as we are and working with other registrars who are not members of the national organization.

The professional character of the service that we are now rendering secures for us representation generally in those committees that are set up from time to time to study and organize programs that have nation-wide significance in the field of education. During the last three years our association has served significantly in the project that was set up by the American Council on Education for the standardization of the educational evaluation of the multiplied war service and training programs. In fact the final and really significant work in this project was done by a group of registrars and perhaps in particular by George Tuttle, Registrar of the University of Illinois. Through their work our colleges and universities have been enabled to avoid the scandals that accompanied a parallel problem at the end of World War I.

For those of you who have greater professional ambitions, let me point out that several registrars have been elevated to presidencies and are doing each of them a good job, notably Raymond Walters at the University of Cincinnati and C. E. Friley at Iowa State College.

One of our accomplishments that is constantly bringing us increased professional recognition is our magazine. From 1911 to 1928, this appeared simply as a report of the association's annual meeting, reprinting the papers that had been presented at each meeting, but in 1928 it became *The Bulletin* and in 1937, the

JOURNAL, published quarterly and presenting in one issue the report of the annual meeting and in the other three, recent developments not alone in the field of the registrar but generally in the whole field of education. Accordingly through it the registrar is posted up to the minute in the latest thought and effort in the field of education and in his own technical development—his registration procedure, his relations to students, to deans and to faculty and how he can enrich these, his possible contributions to educational problems and research, his relation to student activities, the latest curriculum developments, his executive duties, his professional library, his responsibilities in the testing program, in guidance and in personnel work. It is professional through every page, and I have had librarians tell me that it is a "must" for their shelves.

Such then in brief and in outline is the development of the registrar in thirty-five years. Definitely, he now is no longer a clerk.

The College Teacher and the Personnel Program

J. ANTHONY HUMPHREYS

IN LINE with the best present-day theory and practice in student personnel service let us make the following assumptions:

1. That the student personnel point of view is firmly established in the college and also correctly understood.
2. That the personnel function is recognized by all the faculty and officers of the college as one of its three chief administrative aspects: instruction, personnel service, and general administration (including the financial aspect).
3. That student personnel service is an integral part of the educative process, not something set apart from that process.
4. That there exists in the college a department of personnel service under expert, competent leadership of a department head, responsible directly to the chief officer of the college, and recognized by all as an administrative head of rank equal to that of other principal administrative officers.
5. That co-operation between those engaged primarily in instructional activities and in personnel service is readily practicable because of a spirit of wholesome co-operation and because of the existence of the necessary assistants, space, and equipment.

But what is the meaning of this intangible phrase, the student personnel point of view? By pronouncement of the American College Personnel Association in its charter we find that viewpoint expressed in this fashion:

"A philosophy of education that is in harmony with modern concepts of psychology and related sciences imposes upon educational institutions the obligation to consider the student as a whole—his intellectual capacity and achievement, his emotional make-up, his physical condition, his social relationships, his vocational aptitudes and skills, his moral and religious values, his economic resources, his aesthetic appreciation. It puts emphasis, in brief, upon

the development of the student as a person rather than upon his intellectual training alone."¹

This emphasis on the development of the individual is not a new departure so far as the true teacher's attitude is concerned. The best teachers have always been interested in their students as individual persons and in their complete development. But because of the large increase in enrollment in our colleges during the past twenty-five years and because of the increasing emphasis on the expansion of subject matter as such and the teaching of it, there has appeared the tendency for college teachers to lose sight of the all-round development of the individual. Adequate attention to students as persons has been threatened.

Concurrently with the marked growth in enrollment have emerged the psychology of individual differences and the newer techniques of evaluating and interpreting those differences. To understand and use expertly this new departure in psychology has required study by those men and women who have devoted their time and mental energies exclusively to that pursuit. One of the important fields of application of these new theories and techniques is to student personnel service on the college level.

By original assumption and definition the primary aim in this presentation is to discuss the general and specific character of the relationship between the instructional staff and the personnel department. Because of the extensive development of the theories and techniques underlying personnel service, division of labor between the instructors and the personnel technicians has become necessary. The fundamental questions are:

1. What is the special province of the instructional staff in student personnel service?
2. What activities should be carried on exclusively by the personnel department?
3. What activities should be handled jointly by instructors and the personnel department?

As a parenthetical thought we need to take account of the fact that under present conditions not all college instructors are interested in their students as human beings or willing to become more inti-

¹ The American College Personnel Association, *Report of the Fifteenth Annual Meeting, 1938*. "Charter of the American College Personnel Association," p. 105 (Conference at Atlantic City, N.J., February 23-26, 1938).

mately acquainted with them. Some teachers consider that they have done their duty when they have given class lectures, made assignments, administered subject-matter tests, graded those tests, and assigned marks at the end of the term. To such instructors students are no more than names in the class book and in the academic records.

For this reason it is impractical to say that *all* instructors are personnel officers. By reason of lack of specialized skill in personnel work and unwillingness to learn anything about it, and because of personal limitations, nothing can be gained by believing that all members of the instructional staff participate in a personnel program. Even if the attempt were made to select for our college faculties only instructors with the student personnel point of view, it is improbable that enough men and women could be found who would combine competence in their own specialized fields of knowledge and willingness to serve as personnel officers. Therefore in discussing the relationship of the instructor to the student personnel program we must realize that only some of the faculty will participate actively and intimately.

The foregoing consideration leads us to the conclusion that one of the principal responsibilities of the personnel department is to stimulate the instructional staff to become conscious of students as individual persons. Before the faculty can bear any genuine relationship to the personnel program and be given an active part in it, they must see students as something much more than names in a list or merely as human beings who are going through a process of learning.

This intellectual aspect of personality in which the instructor is so much interested does serve as a logical first point of contact between the instructor and the personnel department. All the problems growing out of the psychology of learning in a particular area of knowledge are very real and personally interesting to the thoughtful teacher. That instructor tries to find answers to these questions: (1) What are the best methods of conducting his course? (2) What are the student's typical learning difficulties in that field? (3) What special learning difficulties do individual students have? (4) What can be done to overcome these difficulties both by group and individual instruction?

The step is not a great one from this desire on the part of the teacher to understand the psychology of learning and of the learner

to the appreciation that other aspects of the personality and of the environment of the student affect his efficiency as a student. Up to the present time at least, most college teachers during their period of formal training have given little attention to the various factors that influence the learning process. In fact it is rare for college teachers to have been introduced to an elementary consideration of the psychology of learning in their own field. The elements beyond the intellectual factors are even more foreign.

For example, an instructor's attitude toward a student who has not been making satisfactory academic progress may change materially when he learns of untoward physical or emotional factors that handicap the individual. Or the teacher may discover that the student has been sent to college against his will because of an undesirable home situation. This student has no spontaneous inner drive spurring him to academic achievement. Or the blocking of proper progress in a course of study may be directly traced to personal financial difficulties or to an unhappy social life at the college. These and other types of non-intellectual factors become cumulative in their effect on the instructor's insight into the lives of students. The teacher becomes vividly aware that the task inside the walls of the classroom is made easier or harder, or perhaps well-nigh impossible, because of non-intellectual aspects of personality and because of non-intellectual elements in the environment of the individual student. Therefore if the instructor is genuinely interested in doing the best possible job of teaching, he is not satisfied merely to lecture in the classroom, conduct discussions or laboratory exercises, give examinations, and grade papers.

An instructor with this point of view considers that he has functions to perform inside the classroom as an instructor, and inside and outside the classroom in some aspect, or aspects, of student personnel service. He recognizes that the student attends college not solely for intellectual training, but rather for all-around development as a person. While the teacher's primary emphasis remains on intellectual matters, his attitude toward the student broadens. The separation between instructional and personnel activities that may have existed becomes less noticeable or it virtually disappears.

What may then be said to be the general relationship of the teacher and the personnel department? Both these agents are engaged in the common, and mutually helpful, task of assisting the individual

student to develop himself as an individual person. Neither the instructor nor the personnel department is concerned solely with the student's intellectual life, or solely with his social life, or with his educational and vocational plans, or with his personal problems. Both these agents have the goal of making available to the student those experiences in college which will contribute to the student's all-around development, provided he will expend whatever effort is necessary. These agents are partners in a common project. Fundamentally, activities inside the classroom and outside the classroom pursued by either the instructor or the personnel department have the same goal.

Next what may be said specifically concerning the division of labor between the instructor and the personnel department?

First, what is the special province of the instructional staff in a student personnel program? What are some of the activities for which the teachers may bear special responsibility?

1. They may construct, administer, and grade placement tests in academic subjects.

2. Some of the instructors may administer and interpret tests of reading ability.

3. They may counsel with students by group method concerning the better ways of studying certain subjects and the technique of preparing for examinations.

4. They may give instruction in the making of outlines and the taking of notes.

5. Some instructors may introduce students to the proper use of the facilities of the college library.

6. They may counsel students in groups, or individually, concerning the educational and vocational opportunities offered by the fields of knowledge in which the instructors have specialized. Further, they may assist the students in planning their detailed educational programs.

7. They may report to the personnel department special learning difficulties experienced by some students in those instances that may have a bearing in other relationships.

8. They may report to the personnel department students who apparently need specialized counseling service. These reports and referrals may be based on observation of normal reactions and problems of the student as well as upon evidence of maladjustments.

Because instructors have so many first-hand contacts with students, they are in an unusually strategic position to notice speech defects, or other sensory and motor difficulties, or possible mental and emotional maladjustments. Without assistance from teachers the personnel department cannot hope to become aware of all the maladjustments that should be known to it. Either brief report of observations and conclusions, or the use of the so-called anecdotal technique would be useful in the personnel program.

9. Instructors should report to the personnel department the content of significant interviews which they have had with individual students.

10. Some of the instructors may participate actively in the objective evaluation of placement tests and of subsequent ability grouping, of changes in prerequisites or in the curriculum, and of other strictly instructional and academic policies and practices. This special contribution from the faculty would assist significantly in bringing nearer together instruction and personnel activities.

11. Some of the instructors may assume responsibilities for organization and operation of extra-curricular activities that are closely allied to the subject-matter fields in which they have specialized.

The next question proposed in this presentation is: what activities should be carried on exclusively by the personnel department?

1. The personnel department should set up the general organization of the personnel program and its operation to achieve a cooperative spirit as well as integration of the entire staff and faculty. Essentially, the most important task of the personnel department is that of coordination of the activities of staff and faculty in a thorough-going student personnel program.

2. The personnel department should supplement the personnel activities of the instructors wherever necessary or possible.

3. The personnel department should implement or facilitate within desirable limits the instructional and personnel activities of the teaching staff.

4. The personnel department should be responsible for gathering from many sources significant information about students. It should also record that information and make it easily accessible to members of the faculty. This should take the form of a cumulative record.

5. The personnel department should administer special tests and inventories, such as intelligence, personal adjustment, vocational interests, and aptitude.

6. The selection and admission of students might well be under the supervision of the personnel department. As an aspect of this duty there should be co-operation with secondary schools in pre-college guidance.

7. The personnel department should organize an orientation program for Freshman Week and arrange similar group activities during the college year.

8. The personnel department should organize and operate the following: special diagnostic services; counseling (educational, vocational, and personal); and an adequate placement service.

9. Primary responsibility for organization and general supervision of a meaningful extra-curricular program of student activities should rest on the personnel department.

10. Primary responsibility for supervision of living arrangements for students on the campus should belong to the personnel department.

11. Student personnel research should be a special task of the personnel department. Nor should that department fail to make known the results to those faculty members who are interested in or specially in need of the data and conclusions.

The last question as proposed in a foregoing paragraph was: what activities in the personnel program should be handled jointly by the instructional staff and the personnel department?

A general answer to this question is the best one. That is, in all the so-called exclusive, or initiatory, activities of the instructors and of the personnel department, the spirit should be that of co-operation and mutual helpfulness. Particularly is this true in counseling students, either in groups or as individuals. An adequate counseling program in any of the areas encountered—educational, vocational, or personal—is made possible only by the close co-operation of instructors and the personnel department and by close co-operation between instructors assigned as special counselors and all other instructors, and between these special faculty counselors and the personnel department.

Both the instructional staff and the members of the department of student personnel service need to be pliable enough in mental outlook and in personal temperament to adjust themselves to situations that may require not exclusive handling of a situation but rather a genuine sharing of responsibility. True student personnel service cannot be carried on for the benefit of students if the

instructional staff and the personnel department each insists on exclusive prerogatives and narrowly defined territories. While in the foregoing paragraphs suggestions concerning primary or initiatory tasks have been outlined, the spirit of the faculty and personnel staff must be of such character that necessary adjustments can be made in the light of new conditions and needs of the students.

Finally, to the end that there may be a broadly conceived and definitely adequate department of student personnel service, it is of primary importance to select as future members of a college teaching faculty those men and women who are interested in the development of college students as all-around persons. Just so far as possible, the college instructor of the future should have had in his training some courses that will facilitate his, or her, practical co-operation in the student personnel program. Moreover, in the teaching schedules of all members of a college faculty time should be set aside for systematic personal contacts with students. Even for attention to intellectual aspects of the personality this time is needed. How much more is time required for the non-intellectual aspects that press for attention as outcomes of the intellectual activities! The full benefit of the educative process can be secured only by taking time to deal with the student as a many-sided individual. Any other attitude or practice is a superficial one.

Higher Education in the U.S.S.R.

GRACE GREGERSON

TO PETER THE GREAT, perhaps, belongs the honor of laying the cornerstone of higher education in Russia: in 1726 at St. Petersburg his Academy of Science, comprising a university and secondary school, opened under the supervision of his widow. Even had its founder lived, its success might not have been assured, for the venture seemed premature. The institution staggered along with students varying in number from two to twelve until it closed in 1793. The University of Moscow, established in 1755, is the one generally regarded as Russia's first and oldest. It differed from its predecessor in that corporal punishment was not inflicted upon the students; but other penalties had come into vogue—bread and water rations, forfeiture of school insignia, or compulsion to wear peasant clothing temporarily. Patterned after German universities, it boasted three faculties: medicine, law, and philosophy. No tuition was charged; students who did not support themselves nor live with their families were maintained at government expense in University quarters. At this time however a military career impressed the nobility as carrying more prestige than a university education and consequently the government's interest lagged.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century Russia began to develop its economic and industrial life as a result of contacts with Western European nations, and the Napoleonic wars provided the nobility with opportunity for further association with the literary and social culture of the West. Interest in education improved: A Ministry of Education was established in 1803; the country had two more universities—Kazan and Kharkov; six educational regions were mapped out with a university as intellectual and administration center for each. And the following year full autonomy was granted to the universities; they enjoyed complete jurisdiction in all criminal or civil cases involving students and professors; they were both court and prison as necessary. They were charged with the responsibility of enlightening the public, of organizing scientific societies, and of promoting scientific interests among ordinary citizens. This trend terminated with the fall of Napoleon, and Alexander I introduced

restrictions of one sort and another. The military group, having witnessed the great difference between life in their own country and that of their neighbors, attempted revolution on the coronation day of Nicholas I (December 14, 1825). Since most of the instigators were educated men, students and education came under the heavy hammer of disrepute. From now on registration was curtailed by the introduction of tuition fees and more stringent requirements for admission. Even though these measures produced the desired effects, Russia's industrial expansion from 1825 to 1855 unbalanced them somewhat and contributed to the advance of higher education.

As the numbers of students grew, the attitude of the government became more suspicious. With restraining orders on the part of the authorities, incidents and troubles increased. Students were blamed for every disaster and were under constant surveillance by police. Fearful of student-incited revolution the state considered even closing the universities; perhaps the only deterrent to this extreme procedure was the full realization of the effect this news would have upon neighboring nations. Instead the curricula were reorganized to include six hours of military drill per week.

When Nicholas I died in 1855 and Alexander II became czar the student uprisings became more frequent and reflected the social and economic unrest. By the Edict of 1863 some of the oppressive restrictions were removed, yet the student disturbances continued, later in co-operation with labor strikes, up to the eve of the revolution in 1917. Women students had their own particular petitions: about 1870 they began to clamor for a share in university study. However Russian serfs were freed (1861) before women were. Many of the noblewomen, prepared in native gymnasia, matriculated at foreign universities and returned with very liberal ideas. They campaigned for a program of non-professional education for women, unsuccessfully for a long time. However, in 1897 they had established women's medical courses at St. Petersburg.

About this time the students came from all social classes except from the peasantry and small tradesmen, against whom discriminatory decrees had been introduced. The nobility patronized special institutions of higher learning while the other universities seemed to exist for the purposes of replenishing the supply of professional men and administrators. The revolution of 1905 tended to help the movement of expanding higher education, though the political aspect

of the uprising was a complete failure. Students and the intelligentsia were much more actively concerned in this upheaval and the one of March a dozen years later than the same class of people were in the October Revolution. There were several valid reasons for this change of attitude and perhaps it was because of these that the reactionary antagonism of the intellectuals persisted at length under the Soviet regime.

The Red authorities expected the universities to perform a political function—to graduate Communists; not doctors, lawyers, or engineers, but Red doctors, Red lawyers, Red engineers. Naturally a reorganization took place. Students' courts were to pass upon the qualifications of their professors to teach; some branches of knowledge were excluded from the curriculum on the basis of their being counter-revolutionary; admission was granted to all citizens of sixteen years of age of both sexes irrespective of educational preparation; state examinations and diplomas were abolished.

The Edict of 1921, put into effect the following summer, stipulated that the universities were a definite part of the state itself and formulated the purposes of higher education: to prepare specialists for practical jobs, to prepare scientific workers for various state institutions (scientific, technical, and productive), to prepare teachers for scientific institutions, and to disseminate scientific knowledge among the people, so as to increase agricultural production and industrialization. In the view of the politically utilitarian aims of the higher institutions this period naturally recorded the establishment of many new schools of higher learning, but with a corresponding lack of quality. This was at a time, it will be remembered, when the after-effects of World War I had reached their ultimate low and poverty and famine were primary problems of the new state. As a result of these economic brakes all schools functioned at a very low level of efficiency. To alleviate the educational load many students were weeded out. Some of these were studying only part-time while retaining student privileges; others were definitely dedicated to sabotage of Soviet programs. New rigid entrance requirements replaced the former ones which provided little social selection or academic preparation. Now students of the worker and peasant classes began to be favored as candidates and to make it possible for these impoverished prospects to take advantage of the opportunities the Soviet Government established a system of monthly stipends, varying

according to the academic success of the student, and dormitories which reduced living costs but failed to raise the level of living standards. During the early days of Czarist Russia university candidates were obliged to present credentials of military science, gymnasium completion, and of character from the local police authorities. Now an involved system of "Red" tape for admission requirements called for everything from a birth certificate to candidate's source of income. Even with these apparent barricades to enemies of the state, Soviet foes managed to falsify on questionnaires and become admitted.

How they must have enjoyed their studies may be imagined from the curriculum: History of the Communist Party, Marxism, Political Economy, the Class Struggle, Soviet Economy, Lenin's Principles, History of the Labor Movement, and Materialism. The remainder of the program concentrated on extreme specialization of a professional or technical nature.

At the beginning of the Five-Year Plan in 1928 military drill was introduced as a required discipline for both men and women; the next year physical training was added to promote student health. This curriculum addition was purely disciplinary, not recreational. In fact, the pace of the Five-Year Plan precluded play of almost any kind. Patriotism replaced it and propaganda furnished the inspiration.

During this period emphasis was upon student participation in theoretical academic work, practical application of learning, and school administration. But many of the Communist students in order to live up to the ideals of their party found it necessary to spend so much time in organizational work that no time was left for study. Conscientious students who tried to do both became mental cases. And since psychology had been adjudged previously as a very bourgeois subject, not much attention was paid to students who burned themselves out as candles at the altar of Communism. Mental hygiene was never considered of curricular importance.

Nearly half the student body belonged to some professional organization: trade unions sent many representative to the higher schools; the Communist Party, the Komsomol (Junior Communists) and professional unions all contributed large numbers. All the proletarian elements were united into one powerful group called the Central Bureau of Proletarian Students, which participated in policy-making and administration of higher education. Officers elected to

this body were excused from the necessity of attending classes since it was practically impossible to serve on the board and continue one's university work, too. Terms were for one year and the student's stipends continued to be paid during his service in the Bureau. This policy of student administration had been followed for the seven years prior to July 1928, when a new resolution of the Central Committee reduced the students' participation to suggestions and opinions offered through their representatives at conferences with officials of the institutions.

One of the positive outcomes of the student professional organizations was the development of cultural recreation and extra-curricular literary and scientific activities. Among these may be mentioned: campaigns against illiteracy, children's clubs, libraries, wall newspapers, participation in youth movements, student press, red-corners, group theater attendance, excursions, and concerts. Student committees often arranged for concert and theater tickets at discounts up to eighty per cent. However it must be remembered that attendance at a play was further "education," for all playwrights received from the Soviet authorities a list of suitable themes for dramas such as: The Five Year Plan, Industrialization, Struggle for Labor Discipline, The Tractor Strikes the Kulak, The Transition to Uninterrupted Work, Socialistic Competition, The Face of the Class Enemy, Problems of the Press, and so forth.

Keen interest was taken too in the problem of training teachers. In 1931-32 because of the greatly increased enrollments 92,000 additional elementary teachers were needed. Of this number the regular teacher-training institutes were able to furnish fewer than 14,000. To secure the others the commissariats of education in the various republics selected thousands of candidates from the ranks of the Young Communists and gave them brief, special-training courses. And the quota was met. The educational commissariats provide for continued in-service training of teachers, also.

The curriculum of the pedagogical technicum is determined by its predominant vocational bias. Each technicum has either an agricultural or industrial trend, depending upon the local environment. The course is four years in length, but only two of these are strictly professional. In preparing teachers for proficient service in the unified labor school and for participation in socially useful labor, the aim of the Party is to create no break between the teacher's preparation and

the aims of education, which are in principle determined by the needs of the workers. The teacher is expected to be a leader in his sphere of influence, and since labor is the center of the Party's scheme, labor is the central theme of teacher-training. Consequently the future leader must attain facility in some skill or skills if he is to exert the proper influence upon the students and workers of the community. Besides this, his studies must include sciences which are basic to an understanding of nature, and of the child, and of the processes of learning. In the social sciences emphasis is placed on the Marxian philosophy and the principles of dialectic materialism.

Participation of the student-teachers in the work of the community during training may include the conducting of campaigns against illiteracy, work with homeless children, and participation in civic enterprises. All prospective teachers must know the fundamentals about factory production, soviet farming, machine-tractor stations, and the methods and work of polytechnization. A teacher is expected to be a super-agent of the Communist regime in his local sphere of influence.

Academic freedom for teachers is a dream, even in the West, say Soviet Party men. There are subtle influences brought to bear upon them by the exigencies of the capitalistic order itself which preclude the possibility of anything like real academic freedom. There is no such thing, according to the Communistic philosophy. So it is not surprising that the government authorities exert considerable pressure, especially in the field of the social sciences, upon investigators to produce results which are favorable to the Communist theory of social and human nature.

Informal education of the masses is promoted in many different ways. One of these is by insuring the people against the possibility of being contaminated by capitalistically-tainted movies. University-trained men and women are urged to go into movie work. There is a four-year university course by which one may earn what amounts to a doctorate of cinema. It requires quite as much study and training to become an actor for the Soviet stage as to become an engineer or a scientist. Every member of the profession is trained equally well: camera men, directors, writers, designers, costumers, administrators, and economists. About half the time in training is devoted to theoretical work, and half to practical work. The student's outlook is not specialized to the detriment of breadth. Experience in all

phases of movie production is given to each student regardless of his main interest. Theoretical studies embrace politics, economics, social sciences, dialectic materialism, Leninism, methodology of art, history of literature, dramaturgy, science of the theater, history of the cinema, anatomy, physiology, psychology, make-up and costuming, music and sound principles, and so on. Admission to the movie school is slightly more difficult than to other universities.

Although each of the sixteen republics is theoretically autonomous in cultural and education questions, the position of authority is actually insubstantial. Each has its own particular Commissariat of Education and individual features, differing in some respects from those of other republics, though in relatively unimportant matters only. Since there is no commissariat for the union, the monopoly of the party-state is revealed in the administrative concentration of nearly all branches of education in the several commissariats of education. Each commissariat is supported by a council. Some of the departments are: the *Gus*, supervising the preparation of courses of study, the methods of education, the appointment of professors and teachers in the *Vus* (institutions of college grade), and directing the preparation of scholars; the *Glavsozvos*, supervising the system of general (social) education; the *Glavprofobr*, directing vocational education; the *Glavnauka*, supervising scientific work in academies and in other scientific institutions, scientific museums, libraries, and so forth; and the *Glavit*, supervising and censoring the press, literature, theatrical productions, printing offices, libraries, book shops, public offices, and so forth. There is also the *Sovnazmen*, supervising the education and enlightenment of all non-Russian nationalities in the RSFSR, and the *Glavpolitprosveit*, supervising and directing the propaganda of communism through all the channels outside the general school system, which symbolizes the inseparable ties between education and politics, between the Party and the State.

Vocational education has three divisions: the first, based upon the primary school education, prepares workmen for the various skilled occupations. These lower grade vocational schools correspond in age to the first cycle of the secondary schools. The next higher division of vocational schools is mainly the *Technicum*, which prepares specialists of middle grade qualifications, and enables its graduates to enter the *Vus*. The *Technicums* are specialized along industrial, agricultural, pedagogical, medical, art, and socio-economic

lines, and practical work forms the core of the studies. The *Rabfaks* (workers' faculties for adults between eighteen and thirty-five usually) are designed to enable those who have primary education but who have been unable to obtain a higher education, and who are politically acceptable, to enter the *Vus*. Ordinarily the *Rabfaks* are associated with universities; they have a day division in which workmen sent by organizations devote their time exclusively to study, and an evening division for workmen who are occupied during the day.

The *Vus*, forming the last link in the system, have two particular aims: they are to create new intellectual leaders for the country from the ranks of workmen and peasants to replace the former intelligentsia, most of whom were liquidated in the course of the revolution and afterward; also they are to train specialists for the various aspects of Soviet life. The selection of students according to class principles, which is characteristic of all levels of Soviet education, reaches a peak in these institutions. By the year 1933 fifty per cent of the enrollment in the *Vus* comprised children of peasants and workers. The proportion of Party and Komsomol members in the student body was also steadily increasing. The special institution in Moscow which trains "Red professors," as also a few other special schools, admits only Party members. In the *Vus*, except for social sciences, the study of general subjects is reduced to a minimum.

The student is not an honored intellectual but is considered to be a workman who is taking time out from his life-work to enrich his scientific qualifications for more progressive and efficient service. About half of his time may be spent in factories or other institutions, according to his specialization. Lecturing consumes approximately one-fourth of the student's time.

"Aspirants" are those who, though having completed what corresponds to the college course, are continuing their studies further. These represent the future professors of the country, and though the proportion of Party and Komsomol members, workers, and peasants in their ranks is constantly increasing, the scholarship attainments of the group as a whole are reported to be maintained at a high level.

The social position of every person can be determined definitely from his personal papers which are required by the authorities. Though the higher institutions of learning are theoretically open to all who have passed through a technical school or a workers' course and have spent three years in practical work, proletarians will be

assigned a place first, and others will find themselves rejected on account of lack of space, since many vacancies will be filled by selectees from factories, trade unions, and youth organizations. Non-workers have a greater prospect of admittance to teacher-training institutions, for the rush to them is no torrential one.

As in many other countries the reason is mainly economic. Professors in the universities, as well as the teachers in the lower and middle schools, are poorly paid. The standard average rate during this period for six hours' teaching per week is about one hundred fifty rubles a month. Many Moscow professors arranged their schedules ingeniously enough to allow themselves to teach simultaneously in one or more of the provincial universities. Some former professors of economics, history and allied subjects who have been unable to adapt themselves to the exigencies of the Marxian standards have been replaced; but few changes have occurred among instructors of mathematics and other sciences which have little element of politics inherent in them. On the whole, appointment to a lectureship is determined by the extent of the candidate's qualifications in scholarship, intelligence, and attainments. Yet, if the professor through malevolent remarks or other means detracts from the student's confidence in the regime, no depth of intellectual prestige can assure his position.

One of the features of Soviet vocational education which is of special interest to us is that of government aid to students. Since adults between twenty and sixty years comprise but forty-four and five-tenths per cent of the total population the economic burden of education is relatively heavy. Therefore the state finds it necessary to finance students in vocational training. While the Soviet student at graduation may be less well prepared from an academic standpoint than his foreign brothers, his sense of deep responsibility and his knowledge that a position awaits him contribute to his sense of security. However, this feeling may be offset by the heavy sense of social obligation which usually rests upon one in whom the state has invested so much. Naturally such a person would be apt to feel less confident of his ability to produce noteworthy achievements in his chosen field than the student who had paid his own way and accepts the future as a challenge thrown to him.

Yet it is certainly true that to some extent the fact that a student's colleagues in a factory or a *kolkhos* have sent him to an institution of

higher learning may be a potent factor in giving him a definite purpose in study, a driving goal for his work, and a strong incentive to success. To be constantly aware of the fact that one has been singled out to represent his group puts a premium on seriousness of study, and to know that one's achievements in the school will be measured by the keen judgment and interested scrutiny of one's peers afterward in the field of activity is apt to assure the maximum of effort, and consequently, of results.

On the other hand, there are deterrents to the dreams of a serious student whose ambition may have to be dissipated in activities of a sort not closely related to the main goal of his study: this is institutional or patriotic work which needs to be done, but it is often done at the cost of the physical and mental health of students.

Following the close of the First Five Year Plan came a counter-revolutionary period with further innovations. On September 19, 1932, the Central Executive Committee decreed further changes in administration and curricula: discipline was emphasized; grades, examinations, reports, and dissertations were re-instated; degrees were again awarded. These alterations in policy were in the interest of improving quality in training of specialists, since many "engineers" were being turned out of the higher schools whose ability was equal to that of only ordinary mechanics. The following year courses of study were revised in order to devote more time to theoretical subjects, and all institutions of higher learning were to extend the time of study, by postponing the practical work in production from the first year to the third year of training.

This government resolution on higher education of January 1, 1933, marked a milestone in progress. From this date, both administrative officers and students of universities and technicians entered upon the First All-Union Socialist Competition in order to improve the status of higher education. Students instituted contests among individuals and groups for the specific purpose of eliminating failures and tardiness, improving student administration, increasing the number of high grades, and so on. Both those who made good ratings and those who through neglect or laziness failed to make a proper showing were introduced to the public through the press.

Beginning in the academic year of 1934-35 Moscow and Leningrad Universities reintroduced the history faculties in order to prepare

a staff of historians without whom the Bolsheviks had felt the nation could progress better; but now since history as a subject was introduced in the elementary and secondary school the university was required to make up for lost time.

Group-study techniques were reorganized so that the individual was forced to do his own work and be examined on it. Personal rewards spurred the student to do his best; stipends were graduated according to the students' academic achievements. The position of the professors was accorded more prestige. Their children were considered on a level with those of proletarians insofar as admission to higher schools was concerned, and their salaries were raised.

Among other later innovations was a change in the system of free schools. In October 1940 tuition fees (excepting for A students of limited means) were initiated for technicums, institutes, and the last two years of secondary schools. The change was made necessary because of increased defense expenditures by the government, and it was made possible because of the comparatively favorable economic condition of the people at the time. However, free tuition and the system of student-stipends were expanded to cover individual situations. For instance, during this period the Council of People's Commissars decreed exemption from tuition fees for students who have been wounded, shell-shocked or suffering illness. War casualties are given scholarship aid regardless of academic standing. Also exempted from tuition fees are members of families of Red Army officers and men.

Energetic advancement on the educational front continued during the war; many institutions moved everything but the buildings east of the Urals and turned out teachers, historians, artists, specialists, and engineers as a patriotic duty to the Union. Perhaps one of the most potent factors in the unity and enthusiastic mobilization of the whole population in the defense of the country was the government policy of expending sums in greater proportions for the more backward races and nationalities in order to raise them to the common level of economic, physical, educational, and cultural advancement. The resilience of the nation in the phenomenon of liberation from the horrors of battle scars is most remarkable, and the universities have assumed a position in the vanguard.

But we must observe that the leaders in the Soviet system have not reached the level of our educational status. In all their work, formal

and informal, true knowledge of other peoples is concealed, withheld, or colored to suit the special political purposes of the communist government. Their educational progress is to be measured in terms of quantity rather than quality. And in view of the fact that the country is so large and the number of languages spoken is so great the authorities have accomplished a great deal. There are some features of Soviet policy which are worthy of emulation, such as student-stipends, the close integration of theory and practical application, and the proportionately greater expenditures for less favored groups. However, the curriculum of higher institutions lacks the essence of a liberal education; there is too much emphasis on quick specialization. The deepest tragedy of Soviet education is the type of mind it cultivates. The goal of true education, we believe, is the development of a full, integrated personality; the goal of propaganda, an adept agent. Education equips man for further growth and the quest after truth; propaganda, claiming to have a monopoly on truth, equips man for nothing. To the educator, the human being is an end in himself; to the propagandist, a puppet for his play. So long as the tentacles of the octopus Communism circumscribe the concept of education, no matter how far its arms may stretch for "learning," they can never encompass it. For education in the real sense cannot flourish in political suppression.

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Editorial Comment

The Veteran and His Needs

THE returned veteran on our college and university campuses is not proving to be a "problem child," as some were wont to think. Certainly his case is not one, except in an extremely small number of instances, that requires any elaborate administrative and supervisory organizations or any of the extensive technical services of psychologists and psychiatrists. Beyond the first few days or weeks of his reinstatement as a civilian, it is very apparent that he has in the vast majority of instances all the powers necessary to take up where he left off and continue with normal peacetime activities.

His greatest need, if we can judge by personal interviews and correspondence, is wholesome counsel and advice by those of us who are admissions officers and registrars and who are familiar with the requirements necessary to be met by those who are candidates for degrees and certificates of one type or another. Least of all does the veteran want "special treatment." He has learned that you can't get something for nothing. He has learned in many circumstances both bitter and painful that adequate and complete preparation is a sure safeguard. That was important when danger confronted him. He is ready to admit that it is just as important in the environments of peace and physical comfort. He is anxious to forget what he left behind on fields of battle. The greatest kindness we can show is to help him forget the dirty and sordid business of war and take up the business of reconstructing a war-torn world. Sympathy and consideration for his needs in making a quick adjustment are of paramount consideration and surely that is a prime essential. Where patience is needed, let us be ready to exercise it.

We must not forget that life and experience in the Army, the Navy, the Coast Guard, and the Marines have certainly opened up new possibilities. The men and women in the armed services have, because of their experiences, been enabled to see something bigger and better ahead for them. To help these returning students to capitalize upon them and chart new courses of action as students is our greatest concern. This means certainly, that we who remained behind our desks must of necessity reevaluate our functions, reexamine

our requirements, modify our procedures and raise our sights, so to speak, to accommodate our programs of action and provide expeditiously for the attainment of the ends sought by the returning veteran.

These are times when ancient shibboleths must be reexamined as to their validity. Entrance requirements, degree requirements, prerequisites to registration for more advanced courses, time serving in formal class activities—these are some of the matters to which attention must be given. They challenge us to pioneer, to experiment, and to champion new policies and practices.

The Educational Services of the Armed Forces are increasingly receiving acclaim. Confidence in their achievements is increasingly more apparent. The valued services of the United States Armed Forces Institute under the wise guidance of educational leaders who constitute the Advisory Committee of the Institute functioning under authority of the Joint Army and Navy Committee on Recreation and Welfare are everywhere being recognized as being of the very best. The Institute has not only provided extensive educational opportunities through its program of correspondence study but has also been a potent factor in the preparation of a countless number of special subject-matter examinations in many areas of knowledge.

Of preeminent importance to education has been the preparation of the so-called General Educational Development Tests. These tests are in all probability the most reliable measures of general knowledge that have ever been developed. They have been validated beyond any question. They are proving to be an instrument of the greatest reliability in measuring general competence in five areas:

- 1) Correctness and effectiveness of expression.
- 2) Interpretation of reading materials in the social studies.
- 3) Interpretation of reading materials in the natural sciences.
- 4) Interpretation of literary materials.
- 5) General mathematical ability.

They are more and more finding acceptance as a basis for the awarding of high school diplomas to those young men and women whose high school education was interrupted by the requirements for furnishing soldiers, sailors, and marines for our armed forces. In turn, colleges and universities are accepting diplomas so awarded as a valid basis for admission.

That there may be more universal acceptance of the General Edu-

cational Development Tests (G. E. D. Tests), the American Council on Education is now in the process of setting up a special commission to propose acceptable policies and procedures on the basis of which both secondary schools and colleges may more confidently accept these and other tests as fit measures of high school competency and in turn fit preparation for entering upon college studies. The American Association of Collegiate Registrars can well afford to give its support to these efforts of the American Council and lend its every assistance that the project may be successfully carried to a completion. We should not forget also the valued services of the American Council in setting up that other important committee which under the direction of Mr. G. P. Tuttle, Registrar of the University of Illinois, has brought out the so-called *Tuttle Handbook* which is increasingly being used by registrars as an authoritative guide in the determination of credit to be granted for educational experiences of men and women in the armed services.

Both of these committees or commissions have the support of most, if not all, national and regional agencies that have had and do have an interest in their activities. It may truly be said that the leaders of education are conscious of the needs of veterans and are resolutely determined that they shall be met constructively, having in mind not only these needs but also the interests of educational institutions in adequately safeguarding their true functions of fitting men and women for the highest citizenship of which our returning veterans are capable.

G. W. R.

Science in the Humanities

EVERY generation must find its own humanities. This is not to say that any generation can without penalty abandon the wisdom of the past, but it is to say that the wisdom of the past must be evaluated in the light of the life of each generation. The humanities are a source of wisdom: they help to develop judgment, to promote evaluation of human affairs, to encourage enjoyment of what life has to offer. They are not, however, something sent down out of Heaven.

Rather they are the result of interpretation of human affairs as the interpreters have found them. Too often we think of the great humanists as sages in a vacuum, evolving from their own intuition schemes for the betterment of mankind; whereas they were usually

people fairly active in social matters, who undertook to find the rationale of those matters in which they were active. They were men working with specific social facts and interpreting them in the light of a specific tradition for a specific lot of people. It so happens that for countless generations those interpretations fitted a vast number of subsequent social facts, and were wiser and certainly more attractive than most interpretations of a later time. They are as valid for us as for any generation, insofar as they fit the facts that they are called on to interpret; but an interpretation of one set of facts is not always good for another. It may be, but there is no reason to suppose that it must be. We live in a world—not a brave one, but a new one. What takes place in this new world may or may not be illuminated by what was written or otherwise created for another world.

For one thing, the world of myth is giving way to the world of science. Slowly it gives way, and with much grief and lamentation. It is not for us to say yet whether this reversal in attitude is desirable or not, but we can say that it is upon us. Myth is nothing childish, nothing contemptible. On the other hand, science is not childish or contemptible either. We live in the light of science, not of myth, and therefore interpretations of life in the light of myth may be inapplicable to our society. That is all we need to say in putting ourselves in a wary frame of mind: we need to consider what has been said, to discover whether it is said about us, about our society, about our forms of activity of the body and of the mind.

Again what was valid for a people with centuries of magnificent tradition may or may not be valid for a nation that has no past. For the United States, as a political and social entity, has no past. It was conceived and brought forth in adulthood, one might almost say in middle age. We have no traditions, no myths, no growth from the distant past that keep our thoughts in one direction. We were born adult, and we spread rather than grew up.

Such a political setup as ours is one that the Greeks never contemplated. Our social setup is equally remote from anything that the Greeks or any other humanists of the old tradition ever thought of, and to suppose that the thinking that went on about a wholly different society, even in the wisest minds, will be unqualifiedly useful to us, is to assume omniscience in human beings, something unlikely at least.

It took time for the method of science to become understood even

in the precincts of physical science. It will take much longer, perhaps, for it to become a general method of human inquiry. As long as it is now established in so many disciplines, however, and since those disciplines are changing our whole world and our life in it from day to day, we must reckon with scientific method more, perhaps, than with any other one feature of our time.

We can establish our humanities accordingly. That is, we can review all that has been called by that name, to discover what we may profitably use and what we may properly discard. We can evaluate previous bases of evaluation, and judge old sources of judgment. We can submit to inquiry those means which once served as directives toward the good life, and retain what is suitable.

We can, in short, add a vital method to the humanities, the method of scientific inquiry. The humanities have always been those results of human activity that mankind has not willingly let die; the supreme achievements of man's activities; the accomplishments that have endured because mankind has insisted that they endure. They have been the measures of the value of what men and women do.

There is much in the humanities as they have long been understood that we can use to develop our judgment and enjoyment, but there is some that we must perhaps leave because new developments have appeared which supersede the old. We cannot assume that what has long been sufficient is still enough. We do not, as a matter of fact, assume it, but we are apt to make another equally unscientific assumption.

Our principal danger lies in the attitude that the wisdom of the ages is none of our concern. We have come to think too often like children, who suppose that the sun rises new each day and that nothing continues—or at least that continuity is of no importance. We hope to evaluate everything in the light of our own experience; and for two reasons that is impossible.

In the first place, our own experience is not and cannot be of the universality of the experience of mankind; and our wisdom is not likely to be comparable to the accumulated wisdom of mankind. In the second place, we can hardly differentiate in our own experience the essential from the occasional. No matter what our personal experience, it is cluttered with concomitant circumstances that for the moment loom as large as the essential. We can never see the unfounded essential elements of our own lives. Our experience has

neither clarity nor universality; and our feelings, as well as attendant circumstances, mar our judgment of the immediate. The events of literature, however, and much of the old canon of the humanities, have universal applicability, and they lack that confusion that our lives have. We can see them clearly and see them whole.

It is because scientific method is also so impersonal, on the one hand, and demands also such rigid exclusion of the chance inconsequential on the other, that it may prove to be the one valid addition we have to make to the canon of the humanities. We may make others; we can never assume that we will not. For the moment, however, our chief task is to evaluate the humanities, and all disciplines which, like scientific method, may claim status as humanities. Then the path to judgment and enjoyment in life will be easier for our charting of the stars.

S. A. N.

Book Reviews

The Quest of American Life. George Norlin (late president of the University of Colorado), University of Colorado Studies, *Series B: Studies in the Humanities*. Boulder, Colorado: March, 1945.

The leaven of American life, President Norlin asserts, has always been a passion for freedom. But this leaven has never yet achieved the national ideal, largely because the quest for freedom has been a personal one having too little regard for the common welfare. "The people be damned" has frequently expressed more than a private protest against personal restraint. It has often voiced a dominant public sentiment.

But there has always existed opposition to this sentiment. There have always been men who have insisted that no one can be permanently free except in a society in which all are free. There have always been some who have believed, with Lincoln, that anyone who would deny liberty to others is unworthy of it himself. And always there have been a few visionaries in America who have felt that only by the application of the Golden Rule to our collective social and economic life can our democracy endure and fulfil itself.

It is with these men of the opposition, this idealistic minority, that Norlin is concerned. They are what he calls our American humanists. Humanism he defines as "an attitude of mind and heart which holds to the preciousness of human life, which has faith in the potential dignity and worth of our human being apart from the trappings of wealth and station; and which strives to create a social soil and climate wherein every human personality may take root and flower and be fruitful, each in accordance with the nature and capacity of each."

Such an attitude or spirit is, of course, a free and elusive one, which like the scriptural wind comes and goes, no man knowing whither or whence. But Norlin finds for it a local habitation as well as a name. It thrives best on the mental and social frontiers. Its greatest protagonists in America have been men who dared to push beyond the boundaries of accepted thought and established territory. And so it found its first full expression in "bold adventurers in the life of the spirit" like Roger Williams and John Woolman. And, as our western expansion has moved from the Alleghenies to the Rockies, and from the Rockies to the Sierras, it has been constantly renewed or born again. "On every frontier there was a new baptism of freedom—a revived recognition of human dignity and worth."

President Norlin's study shows that the men most important in establishing and maintaining the humanistic tradition in America were Roger

Williams, William Penn, John Woolman, John Greenleaf Whittier, Hector Saint Jean de Crèvecoeur, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, Andrew Jackson, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Walt Whitman, Abraham Lincoln, and Theodore Roosevelt. With Roosevelt, the study ends somewhat abruptly. Had longer life and health been granted to President Norlin, he would perhaps have followed the thread of humanistic idealism beyond the era of the Square Deal into the periods of the New Freedom and the New Deal.

As it stands, *The Quest of American Life* is a valuable contribution to the history of ideas in America, entitled to take its place beside such works as *The American Spirit*, by Charles and Mary Beard. It is especially valuable in these days of post-war discouragement. We are glad just now to be reminded that in the darkest hours of our national life the light of humanism has always burned steadily though sometimes dimly, that always, in the presence of selfishness, greed, and hatred there has remained somewhere in the collective American heart the conviction that America must eventually accord to every human being, regardless of his race or color, the right, within the limits of the common good, "to live his own life, to inquire, to adventure, to aspire, and to seek his own salvation."

President Norlin perhaps does not attain the austere objectivity of the Beards. He frankly reveals his sympathies. He is always ready to break a verbal lance against the enemies of the children of light. But he writes, nevertheless, with dignity, assurance, and charm. Recalling that George Norlin was the translator of the Loeb Isocrates, one remembers that Matthew Arnold liked to believe that men trained in the Greek classics carried with them a calm of mind and depth of feeling born of a great experience. Whatever may be the merit of this Arnoldian faith, the reader of *The Quest of American Life* feels that he is in the hands of one who has viewed life with unusual sympathy and understanding.

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Carter V. Good (Ed.), *Dictionary of Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1945, Pp. xxxix + 495.

A dictionary is a difficult book to review because it has no plot. The *Dictionary of Education* was a project sponsored by Phi Delta Kappa, national honorary educational fraternity. The project was set up under the direction of Professor Carter V. Good of the University of Cincinnati. Dr. Good was assisted by a large number of able educators—in fact, the list of the co-ordinators, associates, and reviewers is almost a "Who's Who in American Education." In other words, this book was done by

a professional editorial board of well selected people representative of the best in American education.

The book is made up of almost 500 pages of definitions of educational terms. The book is printed in very small type so that the total contents may be presented in a book of this size.

For the past month I have had the Dictionary of Education on my desk where I could refer to it often. I have found the definitions I have used very well written and very helpful.

No one will ever read this book through, but as a reference book it has its place and, I think, will be of great value.

GEORGE WILLARD FRASIER

President, Colorado State College of Education

Through a Dean's Open Door. Herbert E. Hawkes and Anna L. Rose Hawkes, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1945. Pp. 240.

This is a book of sixteen chapters on the basic personnel problems and methods to be considered by parents and by College Administrators in dealing with prospective college students and students in actual college attendance. Each of the authors had made exhaustive study and had had successful experience in College Personnel Work and they prepared the book upon request of a special committee of The American Council on Education.

The book presents in strong contrast the former attitude of considering the college student merely as an intellectual individual and the present-day attitude of considering him as a personality with varied forms of expression to be developed by the college into a thoroughly co-operative unity, while he secures a suitable basic knowledge of facts and the power to think and co-ordinate these facts as guidance for the most effective program for his life.

The authors place much stress upon recognition of the individuality of each student as differentiated from that of every other student and the consequent necessity for the college to secure detailed information about him from the preparatory school, from various tests by the college and from his college instructors and advisers so that such information may be available for full consideration in connection with any personnel problems which may arise in his college career. In line with this emphasis upon the distinctive personality of each student they recommend a careful study of the student and his educational needs and also a careful study of the college to determine what college is best suited to his particular needs. Special emphasis is placed upon the high grade student who gives evidence that he will secure from his college course the values which will fully repay the labor, time and money which it requires. They discuss the need

for each student to be prepared in advance for the various adjustments which are required when he transfers from high school with its thorough supervision to the large freedom of college and a self-directed life program. They emphasize the importance of training the student to make his own decisions after he has secured the basic information necessary for wise decisions.

Considerable attention is given to the use of various tests and examinations and of personnel reports by the student to discover his personality as fully as possible. The authors emphasize the educational value of classroom examinations as an intellectual stimulus apart from the record of achievement attained.

They give many reports of actual experiences with students which are illustrative and suggestive. They stress the importance of careful selection of Faculty Advisers and of the use of the same adviser for each student for the whole of his college career. They recommend close co-operation between College Instructors, Faculty Advisers, Student Clinics and the Dean's Office.

In support of their recommendations for college personnel work the authors include chapters on Flexibility of Requirements, Group Relationships, Financial Handicaps, Health, Religion, Discipline, The Responsibility of the College to the Individual and The Responsibility of the Individual to the College.

The book is a condensed and thorough study of the problems involved and is very readable.

Theron Clark

University of California at Los Angeles

Educating Liberally. Hoyt H. Hudson, Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1945. Pp. viii + 120.

This book consists of part of what the author intended to be a comprehensive description of liberal education. Unfortunately the author died in June, 1944, after finishing about half the volume he had undertaken. But what he had completed forms a whole in itself and is worthy of careful consideration.

In his introduction the author says he is attempting "to set down in more technical language what a liberal education must be and do—and to show how American colleges and universities may do more than they have been doing to provide that education for students." The book consists of eight chapters, ranging from 4 pages to 27 in length.

A liberal education is *not* education for one's leisure time, for one's avocation, only. "The essence of a liberal education lies in the expanded freedom of the person educated, in the multiplication of his opportunities

for making real choices—in judgment, in belief, in purpose, and in action.”

The three chief foes to liberal education are “ignorance, muddle-headedness, and crassness.” Stated negatively they are “lack of information, lack of operative logic, and lack of imagination.” Information undermines ignorance, operative logic reduces muddle-headedness by showing meanings and relationships, crassness is eliminated by constructive imagination—the stimulation to conceptions of what can be by understanding what is.

The mere facts of history or economics are of little value, as are also the mere facts of any science. It is the clear understanding and logical interpretation of related facts that count. “Something has certainly been lost by the growing disregard of logic as a college subject.”

A regrettable weakness in college teaching, even in the hands of some of the most skillful and devoted of teachers, is that no goal is taken account of beyond critical thought limited to the given subject. If left at that point students may be unable by themselves to see the logical significance to life, growth, and human welfare of the facts learned, and may suffer a vague but real sense of frustration.

The content of a liberal education consists of the fields of knowledge that would develop a liberal attitude toward any and all knowledge. The specific subjects are not important so long as a liberal spirit is awakened, quickened, and maintained. The liberal attitude should be more than momentary appreciation, that would be easily displaced.

“We want knowledge that a student can live with and live by—a content such as can be cherished and turned to, not as one flees to a place of refuge but as one goes to a storehouse or makes connection with a powerhouse.” “The young person who seeks a liberal education may be described as one who wishes to discover and to live the good life.”

The starting point for determining the content of a liberal education must be the nature of the student as a human being with a desire to understand himself and the world he lives in. History and philosophy are the core subjects. A great part of science is really natural history, and the rest of it could be called natural philosophy. The central areas of liberal studies are sciences and humanities considered historically and philosophically.

A college may do a good job of educating liberally even if it does not offer advanced work, or concentrated specialized work in more than a few fields. However, a college does not do a good job of educating liberally unless every student is brought to full and concrete knowledge in at least one field,

Liberal education should include the faith and idealism that are basic in religion. Man’s “impulse to social service and self-forgetfulness is

usually developed only through an education essentially religious, and sustained only by an atmosphere of honest co-operation. Unco-ordinated human activities lead to nothing but chaos."

There is no sharp line between *liberal* education and *vocational* education. Both may be liberalizing and both may be bread winning. "The university ambition" toward high specialization, much research, and emphasis upon *knowledge* for its own sake "is disintegrative of liberal education."

"It is the calling of great men not so much to preach new truth but to rescue from oblivion old truths which it is our wisdom to remember and our weakness to forget."

"With the right teachers, educating liberally will take care of itself."

I have found the book interesting and stimulating. I subscribe fully to the statement of John W. Dobbs in the foreword: "Amid the welter of recent books on liberal education it stands out as one of the sanest contributions to a lively discussion."

LE ROY E. COWLES

President, University of Utah

General Education in a Free Society. Report of the Harvard Committee. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1945, Pp. xix + 267.

When President Conant of Harvard University appointed a twelve-man committee of his faculty to examine the case for general education, the results were bound to be significant. Harvard University as a venerable institution of higher learning has long exercised a profound influence over American education, and the present report entitled *General Education in a Free Society* will doubtless be read widely. In approaching its task the committee interpreted its mandate broadly and set forth a philosophy of general education as well as its practical implications for secondary schools and Harvard College.

As President Conant points out in his introduction, "The book must be taken as a unit." The first three chapters seek to describe the present condition of education in the United States and to set forth a philosophy of general education, suitable for both the gifted and the less able students. The remaining three chapters are devoted to fairly detailed proposals of offerings which are recommended for the secondary schools, for Harvard College, and for adult education in the community.

The analysis in the first three chapters contains few ideas which are new, but they are deserving of re-emphasis. For example, the committee points out that the high school has grown so rapidly and diversified so greatly that the old college preparatory curriculum is quite inadequate. It suggests that inequalities of educational opportunity should be remedied through federal financial aid and that inequalities of pupil ability should

be met by different curricula adapted to two ability levels. Despite this inevitable diversity it is argued that a core of general education should be common to all men.

In setting forth its philosophy, the committee sought to avoid the extreme of excessive traditionalism or excessive experimentation. Rather it insisted that general education should provide a balance of awareness of our common tradition with a spirit of experimentation and a projection into the problems of the present day. These objectives would be sought with an exploration of three areas of knowledge: the sciences, the humanities, and the social sciences; and they should enable the youth to think logically, communicate accurately, make relevant judgments, and have a discriminating sense of values.

The program for the secondary schools called for courses in the humanities, the social studies, and the sciences. English would be studied through a few well-written books, and there would be emphasis upon syntax and vocabulary as tools of expression. The social studies would consist primarily of American and world history with selected emphases, and considerable attention would be given to the necessary skills of reading and investigation. Science would be taught in order to acquaint students with broad concepts in the natural world and their inter-relationships as well as to give some acquaintance in precision through laboratory exercises. At least half the students should not be expected to go beyond elementary algebra and geometry although superior students should be encouraged to take advanced mathematics. The committee favored education for personal adjustment in health, vocational orientation, moral guidance, etc., but had few practical suggestions to offer in this field.

In proposing a plan for Harvard College, the committee recognized that it was speaking for Harvard only, even though many of the principles may be widely applicable. After noting the great flexibility of the present Harvard curriculum which has virtually no specific course requirements, it recommended that at least six of the sixteen courses leading to graduation should contribute directly to general education. Three of these courses would be required of all students and three would be elective from a list approved by a standing Committee on General Education. In the humanities, the required course would be a study of about eight great books read in their entirety; in the social sciences, the emphasis would be upon western thought and institutions revealed through great writings; and in the sciences, the student would take a general course in physical science or in biological science according to his greater need. The other three courses should be elected from different fields and should be continued into the upper college years so that general education would be a part of the full four-year program.

The committee had little to say about general education in the com-

munity except to point out the obstacles as well as some of the achievements already recognized in the field and to stress the need for good teachers. It was believed that new media of education, such as motion pictures and radio, have only begun to fulfill their promise.

The committee's report as it finally emerged was admittedly a compromise and as such it has obvious merits as well as deficiencies. Perhaps the greatest single contribution lies in the sheer fact that these professors at Harvard University have clearly delineated the need for general education in America and have resolutely attacked the problem. Educators everywhere will gather encouragement from this report. The recognition of individual differences is a salutary attack upon those who would run all American youth through the same general education mold, though the sharp distinction between "superior and inferior" students seems altogether too simple and inadequately implemented in the proposed program. The committee recognized the need for broad interdepartmental courses and proposed that they be built upon extensive readings in important books rather than on a block-survey résumé of the fields or a contemporary problems analysis. The suggestion that little mathematics should be required in high school and none in college is a complete departure from the philosophy of St. John's College and the neo-scholastic wing of the general education movement.

Some people will enjoy the style of the book with its smooth cadence and its epigrammatical phrases, reminiscent of Mark van Doren's *Liberal Education*. Others, including the present reviewer, will find the writing rather stuffy, particularly in the first four chapters, and in any case the book could have been condensed substantially without sacrificing any important ideas.

The committee would have made a greater contribution if it had utilized the vast amount of research and experience already accumulated by others in this field. As it stands, the report simply sets forth a plan of education, not a record of proven experience. This fact undoubtedly accounts for the overwhelming emphasis upon curriculum and the relatively small amount of attention given to instructional method. Actually, those who have worked in this field know that the method of instruction is of crucial importance if students are to have adequate motivation and are to achieve substantial integration.

It is noteworthy also that the committee has approached its task primarily by determining the classical content which should be imparted to the oncoming generation rather than by analyzing the needs of young adults in our society and resolutely adapting the content to them. In this respect the Harvard committee must be regarded as clearly in the same school with the Hutchins-Adler-Stringfellow Barr group, rather than the

school of thought represented by Stephens College, the Minnesota General College, and the American Council on Education Committee's Report, *A Design for General Education*. One wishes that the Harvard committee members had consulted the experience and proposals of their former colleague, Dean Donham, who has recently pointed out in his *Education for Responsible Living* that the crucial need in general education is not primarily for a broader coverage of content, valuable as that may be, but rather is for constant experience in the making of informed judgments and the determination of policy. The Harvard committee still regards the mind as a huge reservoir for collecting wisdom which it is hoped can then be drawn forth upon the proper occasion. While lip service is paid to the ideal of helping students to think critically and to make independent judgments, the curriculum and methods which are proposed are poorly calculated to afford practice in this function.

Despite these limitations, the Harvard report constitutes an important contribution to the literature of general education. It is to be hoped that the Harvard faculty will proceed to implement these proposals and will be ready to contribute another report five years hence explaining how the new courses have worked out and been modified in practice.

RUSSELL M. COOPER,
Assistant Dean,
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In the Mail

Among the publications of the American Council on Education the bulletins on *Higher Education and National Defense* have played an effective part in keeping the public informed on matters of current importance as they affect education. Up to October 8, 1945 ninety-one of these bulletins have been issued. This is a brief review of the last five of them.

The issue of July 16, No. 87, is concerned with the successful efforts of four national educational organizations to get the word "education" inserted in the Charter of the United Nations at San Francisco. It had not been specifically included in the Covenant of the League of Nations, the Dumbarton Oaks Proposals, the Chapultepec Agreement or the joint amendments of the four great powers. Through the efforts of the four educational groups with the co-operation of other consultant organizations and the American delegation, "educational" was added as one of the functions of the United Nations Organization.

Dr. George F. Zook, who wrote this report, says that "Educators will rejoice at this victory because they know how dependent the success of international political machinery is upon international mutual understanding and goodwill.

"In this process of education there is an immediate task before us. The proposed international charter holds within its carefully chosen provisions the future peace of the world. Hence it is a document of the greatest possible moment to every man, woman and child in this and every other country in the world. It cannot possibly fulfill our ardent hopes, however, unless it becomes deeply ingrained common knowledge. Our educational system is society's most extensive means of disseminating knowledge and developing individual ideals. Therefore the charter of the United Nations should become at once a subject of extended and continuing study in every school and college throughout our broad land."

Bulletin No. 88, dated August 1, 1945, describes the educational programs of the Army and Navy in the post-hostilities period. Exclusive of the off-duty educational services that have been in operation for more than three years and which were described in Bulletin No. 74 of this series in November, 1944, the Army has provided for the use of four types of schools: the unit school, the technical school, civilian universities and Army university study centers. To the extent that qualified men are available the program will be conducted by military personnel. The work

is classified into literary training, general education, and vocational training, each course being organized into twenty-hour blocks.

"A program of academic, vocational and orientation education and training is well established in the United States Navy under the Bureau of Naval Personnel. This program, known as Educational Services, has two major functions: to disseminate information on the background, progress, and outcomes of the war, and to provide opportunities to continue education while in the service. This program, reaching a large percentage of Naval personnel, has grown steadily and consistently during the two and one-half years of its existence.

"In order that all Naval personnel will be adequately prepared for their return to civilian life, a Civil Readjustment Program was instituted by the Bureau of Naval Personnel in April 1944. This program is designed to assure that every dischargee is fully informed, prior to his discharge, as to his rights and benefits as a veteran and is provided with a maximum of civil readjustment."

Bulletin No. 89, August 8, 1945 discusses legislation affecting higher education under consideration by the 79th Congress, including R.O.T.C., housing for veterans, emergency aid to colleges and universities, peacetime military training, amendments to Public Law 346, and institutional contracts under Public Law 16. Much of this legislation is still pending. This issue recommends that institutions send their catalogues to the Chief of the Convalescent Services Division at Service Hospitals at:

Miami Beach 40, Florida

St. Petersburg, Florida

Camp Davis, Wilmington, North Carolina

Santa Ana Army Air Base, Santa Ana, California

Ft. George Wright, Spokane, Washington

Ft. Logan, Denver, Colorado

Ft. Thomas, Kentucky

Bowman Field, Louisville, Kentucky

Plattsburg Barracks, New York

Pawling, New York

Cochran Field, Macon, Georgia

San Antonio Aviation Cadet Center, San Antonio, Texas

Bulletin No. 90 summarizes the findings of the reports of Dr. Vannevar Bush and of the Senate Committee under the chairmanship of Senator Harley M. Kilgore, on federal support of scientific research:

1. That the government has expanded its support of research by ten times during the war.

2. That the amount of government research done by nongovernmental agencies has increased from 30 per cent to 70 per cent of the total expenditure for government research since 1938.
3. That the proportion of pure research to applied research has decreased steadily during the war.
4. That with the exception of applied industrial research the sources of private support for research are slowly drying up and that some new means of encouraging and supporting pure basic research must be found.
5. That college and university laboratories are the proper environment for basic research as opposed to government and industrial laboratories.

Both reports agree that "We must establish basic research in American colleges and universities and that in order to do this federal funds must be provided to support such a program."

Legislation toward these ends has been introduced in Congress in S. 1297 to establish a National Science Foundation, S. 1316 to provide federal aid to the states for science education, S. 825 and H. R. 3440 to provide for a military research agency, S. 1248 to create a bureau of scientific research within the Department of Commerce, and S. 190, S. 1099 and H. R. 3816 to provide for dental research and service.

Student deferment and veteran enrollment are discussed in Bulletin 91, October 8, 1945. The September 18 ruling of Selective Service is quoted: "Postponement of induction of college and university students:

"Any person who entered upon a course of instruction at a college or university before he became eighteen years of age and who is ordered to report for induction during a quarter or semester of such course of instruction shall, upon his request, have his induction postponed (1) until the end of such quarter or semester, or (2) until he ceases to pursue continuously and satisfactorily such course of instruction, whichever is the earlier.

"Postponement of induction of high school students.

"Any person who entered upon a course of instruction at a high school or similar institution of learning before he became eighteen years of age and who is ordered to report for induction during the time he is pursuing such course of instruction, shall, upon his request, have his induction postponed (1) until his graduation from a high school or similar institution of learning, or (2) until he ceases to pursue continuously and satisfactorily such course of instruction, or (3) until he arrives at the age of twenty years, whichever is the earlier."

Concerning veteran enrollment, the Bulletin reports that "A sampling study of one hundred colleges and universities made as of September 1, indicates an anticipated enrollment of veterans during 1945-46 approximately ten times the number (approximately 20,000) during 1944-45.

While the peak of veteran enrollment will probably not come until September 1946, the discharge of some 750,000 military personnel per month will create two problems new to colleges and universities: (1) The admission of veterans at as frequent intervals *as is consistent with the interest of the veteran* and the facilities of the institution. Some institutions have been able to establish individualized instruction or special review and other courses taught in small groups until the veteran can enter successfully into regular classes, especially at the beginning of the next quarter or semester. (2) Referral of veterans and other applicants to other institutions if they cannot be accommodated in the college or university to which they first apply."

"*More Firepower for Health Education*" is the title of a 50 page bulletin by Arthur H. Steinhaus, Chief of the Division of Physical Education and Health Activities of the United States Office of Education. It is Bulletin 1945 No. 2, which might well be summarized by quoting the author's concluding message to those who would improve health:

"In every living person change is continuous."

"In the presence of another, change is accelerated."

"If, in a group, one person has vision and tries intelligently to guide this change toward realizing this vision—he is a teacher."

"If his vision is that of happy people possessing strong bodies, unhampered by preventable conditions and if he is willing to discipline himself that he may effectively devote his energy toward making his vision a reality on this earth, he may call himself a health educator."

"If he finds simple joy and satisfaction in doing this he will be an inspiring teacher."

"The grandchildren of the pupil who has been inspired by a good teacher will be different because of his teaching. Though they may never identify him to sing his praise, their changed life is in truth the immortality of the teacher. Thus in his pupils the teacher is extended even as in himself he finds the likeness of the one who taught him."

"A pupil wants to be like the teacher he admires—and before he knows it he is like him. This is often not what the teacher was talking—it is often what the teacher was living."

Education Under Enemy Occupation is the title of a seventy-one page pamphlet issued as Bulletin 1945 No. 3 of the Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education. It is "a collection of papers concerned with the effects of war and enemy occupation on education in nine countries in Europe and the Far East, prepared at the request of the United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. J. W. Studebaker, by the Ministers of

Education or their representatives of the respective countries."

This review will attempt to present some of the conclusions or high lights under each of the nine countries for which reports were received:

Belgium: "Universities.—The German plan of action against the universities comprises the following points:

1. Nomination of German delegates
2. Suppression of the courses of certain professors
3. Attempt to transform the University of Brussels into a purely Flemish establishment
4. Appointment of German professors and facilities for Belgian professors to lecture in German universities
5. Nomination of collaborationist professors
6. Introduction of forced labor for the students."

"It may be claimed that the strength of the Nazis has availed them little in their struggle for domination over the youth of Belgium. Threats, privations, and reprisals have served but to nourish the spirit of resistance which has spread like a flame through our schools and universities—a flame which will leap into vigorous life when the day of liberation dawns for our country."

China: In the early stages of the war ninety-one of China's 108 colleges and universities were occupied or damaged by the enemy, and quisling teachers were employed to carry on Japanese propaganda.

"Has this propaganda been effective in winning the Chinese to the Japanese cause? As far as Chinese youth are concerned, the influence has been very slight. Japan has been China's major enemy for such a long time that no amount of indoctrination can change the people's beliefs. By far the majority of the people still look to Chungking for national salvation. They still regard the British and the Americans as China's allies, and are waiting for the day when Japan will collapse in total defeat."

Czechoslovakia: "Czech universities were closed by the Germans in November 1939 for 3 years and have remained closed ever since. Thus Czech youth is completely deprived of university studies. The only exceptions are a few individual students, chosen from among those who have accepted the new regime."

"1. It is clear that the German 'protectors' intend to allow the Czechoslovak population only the minimum of education consistent with the position of inferiority to which the Czechs have been relegated by the Germans.

"2. Wherever there has been any apparent improvement in the educational system in occupied Czechoslovakia, it has proved to be only a camouflage to hide the real interest of the Germans.

"3. The German war machine has gradually drawn larger numbers of

Czechoslovaks, including young people, within its orbit. They are forced to work under conditions in which they are both intellectually and physically deteriorating.

"4. The population of Czechoslovakia, especially the children and young people, are subjected to a terrible moral tension. For, in order to preserve their very lives they have to hide their feelings while the oppressors are constantly in their midst. This situation will very likely result in a great increase in mental cases.

"5. The occupation of Czechoslovakia and its inclusion into the German 'Lebensraum' has resulted in gradual and continuous deterioration in every aspect of life in the country."

France: "It was in the intention of the enemy to 'nazify' the personnel and the syllabi of the schools and the universities. Without either closing or suppressing them, he wanted to make use of them in order to promote a policy of 'collaboration,' that is to say to support by every means the German propaganda."

"This policy has been made possible by the participation of the Government of Vichy which has acted as a docile agent of the enemy's domination."

Many institutions were destroyed, Jewish professors and students dismissed and "Nothing has been spared to subjugate French education; nothing from the universities where the Deans of the Faculties are no longer elected by their colleagues but chosen by the Government, to the primary schools in which the teachers may no longer rely upon the departmental Councils, formerly elected by the inhabitants, to supervise education."

However, the task of reconstruction "Will be made easier by the ever-increasing thirst for freedom, the will for redemption, and the eagerness for work, existing nowadays in schools and universities."

Greece: Education in Greece suffered heavily because that unhappy country was invaded by three enemies—Italians, Germans and Bulgarians—each of whom used conflicting measures to obtain its own ends. In 1943 schools and universities were closed, partly because of epidemics and partly because of recurrent demonstrations in which students took part. In the cities some teachers gave instruction in their homes, but in the outlying provinces every trace of an educational system has disappeared.

"Special praise is due to the students in Greece. In spite of great hardships and suffering (many of them live on nothing beyond a daily plate of soup and dried vegetables at the soup kitchens), their patriotic spirit remains invincible."

Luxembourg: This small country has no universities, but in the schools

the enemy tried to Germanize the teaching completely and to destroy national feelings in the youth. The clergy, which has taken a leading part in education in this Catholic country, were expelled.

"To sum up, it is to be feared that when the Germans have been driven out of Luxembourg it will be found that the children will need to be completely re-educated; the mental and moral poison instilled into them by the Nazis driven out; and religious and civic virtues, together with respect for the authority of the home, inculcated."

Netherlands: There does not appear to be much destruction of the physical plants of Dutch universities except in the bombed coastal areas, but the usual German attempts to recruit quisling teachers and propagandists were made.

"The story of Dutch education under the Nazi heel is perhaps less tragic or heroic than in countries like Poland, but it gives a true reflection of the national character, which is calm but stubborn; critical, but acting on principles. When the boards of more than 1,900 out of 2,000 private schools affected by a Nazi order concerning appointments, write an open letter to the authorities, saying that their conscience compels them to disregard this order, this is a proof that average middle-class men in Holland, out of whom these boards are composed, still are prepared to make a stand for that freedom of conscience and of thought, for which their ancestors have given their lives 400 years ago."

Norway: In general, the schools of Norway were able to carry on during the German occupation. The Germans tried constantly but with indifferent success, to impose their doctrines. In November 1943, when the Germans became convinced that the University of Norway had become a focal point of opposition, S. S. troops took possession and 1200 students and 80 professors were arrested and taken to a concentration camp "together with another party of University lecturers and students who had been arrested earlier, and on the 9th of December 1943 and the 8th of January 1944 boats went to Germany with, in all, about 700 students."

"This is how the University of Norway was closed. The College of Dentistry eventually shared the same fate as the University, as it had been incorporated as a separate faculty. As a result of decisions made by the authorities, the Commercial College at Bergen had taken no new students since 1942, so that the College there was also closed to all intents and purposes. Hence, only the Technical College at Trondheim, The College of Agriculture, and the College of the Veterinary Sciences are still functioning."

Poland: "All Polish universities and colleges have been closed and a great number of professors sent to concentration camps where more than 200 died from starvation and exposure. Two German institutions are now in existence in Cracow and Poznan, but are forbidden to Polish students;

their purpose is to prepare a German cadre for the combat against Polish national culture."

"The whole world of Polish science has been profoundly affected by the destruction of all scientific apparatus. Polish learned societies have been gradually closed, and finally liquidated without exception, their property being confiscated. Poland possessed a large number of private institutions which supported learning, scholars, and scientists, such as the Polish Academy of Science and Learning and the Warsaw Learned Society. Under the occupation they could have had great importance. No scruples deterred the enemy, however, and these purely private institutions were plundered like the rest."

Training Aids

The use of training aids in the armed services is described in Bulletin 1945, No. 9, issued by the Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education. This thirty-four page pamphlet may be secured for ten cents from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. The purpose of the publication is to acquaint civilian educators with the use which the armed services have been able to make of training aids such as:

"Textbooks and manuals.—The Field Manuals, Technical Manuals, and Field Service Regulations of the Army are examples. . . .

"Bulletins, pamphlets, and periodicals.—Our War, which is a news periodical published monthly by the Army for use in Special Training Units, is an example. The Bureau of Navy Personnel Training Bulletin (formerly the Training Division Letter), a monthly magazine, is another. . . .

"Training films and film strips.—Both films and film strips are intensively used. They have been prepared in 35-mm size on a wide variety of subjects and for many different purposes. Some film strips are accompanied by Illustrated Instructor's References.

"Pictures and graphic portfolios.—Every variety of presentation is found under this group. A common approach is the use of graphic portfolios, sets of display boards about 3 × 4 feet. . . .

"Posters and illustrations.—Display posters are widely used in both Services. They are used for many purposes, such as orientation, information, and the like. . . .

"Maps.—Maps are among the most fundamental of military instructional materials. . . .

"Charts and diagrams.—These are widely used in many forms."

"Special auditory aids.—Instructional sound recordings have been prepared and utilized for training in auditory subject matter, such as, radio code communications, speech and telephonic procedures, and underwater

sounds. Whistle signals used for collision avoidance, bugle calls, battle noise conditioning, radio time signals, and convoy radio procedures are other subjects for which training has been provided by means of recordings. . . .

"Real objects and models and 'mock-ups' of objects—Great emphasis is placed on these items in both Services. Scale models of airplanes are used. As much instruction as possible is carried on using standard battle equipment. Where this is not feasible, models and 'mock-ups' are used in the early stages of training and the actual object in the more advanced stages. . . .

"Sand tables and terrain models.—Both of these approaches are widely used."

"The Armed Forces during the past 4 years have produced more than six-fold as great a number of motion pictures and filmstrips as had ever been produced before for strictly educational purposes. Films were used literally with the entire Army and Navy. It can be said that more people have been subjected to training films as a regular instructional tool than ever before in the history of this country."

The bulletin lists a long series of "mock-up" information pamphlets used in teaching communication, electronics, photography, engines, hydraulics, propellers, structures and instruments.

Dr. John W. Studebaker in a foreword says that "the Committee believes that the use of training aids in the educational program of the armed services is significant to civilian education and is worthy of serious study by educators for a number of reasons, one of the most important of which is believed to be that the scope and extent of the use of training aids and devices by the Armed Services exceeds any previous use of such materials in the solution of educational problems."

In the Journals

The President's Annual Report, George F. Zook, *The Educational Record*, Volume XXVI, No. 3, July 1945.

This report covers 105 pages of this issue of the *Record* and describes briefly what the American Council on Education has been doing in the war situation. It is an impressive record of achievement. Dr. Zook's conclusion points out that "We are definitely at the beginning of a new era in education in this country. It is the era of reconstruction, when we begin to leave off our concentration on winning the war and turn gradually to fitting war veterans into on-going civic life and to laying plans for a long and peaceful future of developing the talents of young or old for effective participation in local, national, and international life."

Council membership has grown from 270 to 829 during the last decade. Twenty-nine special financial grants have been made to the Council during the year, steps are being taken toward securing a headquarters building in Washington, five books have been published, ten American Council Studies have been issued and fourteen periodicals and pamphlets brought out. Under war activities the Council has concerned itself with relationships of higher education to the federal government, Army and Navy, college training programs, training in professional and technological fields, education and training for veterans, interpretation of the G.I. Bill of Rights, accrediting procedures, counseling of service personnel, surplus war property, education of war prisoners, and the preparation of the much used Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services. Twenty-seven thousand sets of this 900 page Guide have been prepared and issued under the editorship of George P. Tuttle, Registrar of the University of Illinois.

"One of the most interesting services which the Council has rendered to the armed forces during the last two years has been the sponsorship of the editorial staff for the United States Armed Forces Institute. Under contract with the War Department, the Council has set up a staff in Washington to bring together the teaching materials necessary for the extensive educational program throughout the world. . . . In selecting and editing these books, the Council has had the full cooperation of government agencies, authors, publishers, and teachers and administrators in schools and colleges."

. . . During the present year more than eighteen million copies of education manuals—textbooks at all levels—have been delivered or are on order. On March 31, 1945 the formal enrollments through USAFI and its

branches for Army and Navy were 517,103. Thousands of other soldiers, sailors, and marines are using these materials in group classes or for informal study. This is indeed evidence of the interest which the men and women in our armed forces have in education".

Non-war activities have included international education, education in the Arabic-speaking countries, trade education, youth problems, education and social security, inter-American schools service, Asiatic studies, general education, government and educational finance, southern regional studies, religion and education, intergroup relations, education in aviation, student personnel work, modern languages, visual aids, measurement and guidance and special area surveys.

"The impact of the war on the work of the Council has been evident in all our activities these past five years. Personnel have been made available to the armed forces in substantial numbers; consultative services to governmental war agencies have been given on a continuing basis; regular and special publications have been distributed to war agencies in staggering quantities. This is as it should be.. The Council is proud of its record of service in the war effort—service to the government and service to educational institutions and organizations".

Synthetic Courses in our Schools and Colleges, Arthur Willis Hurd, *The School Review*, Volume LIII No. 7, Pp. 409-412, September 1945.

Dr. Hurd says that "The teachers of this country have a responsibility in fitting what they teach to meet the needs of the students who enroll for their courses and, too, to help see to it that students who manifestly need certain informations get them. It is not enough to have an established sequence, conventional in nature, to which everyone is exposed, and to resort to discipline, force, better study habits, and so on, to get better achievement. The instructor's role is not only one of encouraging and stimulating but the more difficult one of choosing and selecting for the important purposes in mind. The teacher's task is especially complicated for purposes of general education when vocational destinations of students are many, varied, and not yet decided upon. In these courses it seems necessary to arrange elements within each course to make possible a considerable degree of selection by individual students, who are to be responsible for their own vocational choices and who probably have more definite plans in mind for themselves than have many of their instructors for them".

Dr. Hurd thinks that it is necessary not only to provide greater flexibility within given courses but also to produce new synthetic courses to meet individual and group needs. He lists seventy-five of these courses

found in current catalogues, ranging from Advertising Art to the Western Tradition.

"Incidentally", he says "This program is real democracy and plain common sense. It emphasizes releasing and inviting the students rather than disciplining and cramming them".

Universal Military Training and National Security, edited by Paul Russell Anderson, *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Volume 241, September 1945.

This volume of the *Annals* is devoted almost entirely to a discussion of the issue of universal military training and national security by twenty-one writers whose comment is divided into five aspects of the problem—background, military considerations, cultural considerations, alternatives, and security plans among other great powers. These writers and their topics are as follows:

National Security in the Postwar World	Paul Russell Anderson
Universal Military Training in Modern History	Robert A. Graham
Procurement of Manpower in American Wars	Lewis B. Hershey
The Plan of the Armed Services for Universal Military Training ...	John L. McCloy
Universal Military Training and Military Preparedness ..	Oswald Garrison Villard
The Value of Universal Military Training in Maintaining Peace	Mary Earhart
Universal Military Training and American Foreign Policy	Halford L. Hoskins
Arming Against Russia	Norman Thomas
The Issue Should Be Decided Now	Randall Jacobs
The Issue Should Be Decided Later	Francis J. Brown
Public Opinion Toward Compulsory Peacetime Military Training ..	Hedvig Ylvisaker
A Sociologist Looks at Conscription	Willard Waller
The Economic Implications of Universal Military Training	Rainer Schickele and Glenn Everett
Education—By Whom, For What?	A. J. Brumbaugh
Professional Army Versus Military Training	Hajo Holborn
Wanted: An Over-All Plan of National Defense	Ernest H. Wilkins
Military Training Through the National Guard	Omar B. Ketchum
National Security and Great Britain	A. P. Young
National Security and the Soviet Union	John N. Hazard
National Security and France	André Mesnard

Considerations of space and time make impossible a review of each of these articles, but the attention of readers is called to this comprehensive presentation of all sides of a question of great present concern to the United States.

What the G. I. Wants to Study, Pfc. Burton H. Byers, *The Nation's Schools*, Volume 36, No. 4, P. 22, October 1945.

Private Byers reports an education survey made in the 309th infantry regiment after it had fought through the Siegfried Line, pursued the

enemy to the Rhine, established the bridgehead at Remagen and helped clean up the Ruhr. It was probably an excellent cross section of returning veterans with extensive combat experience. Three thousand questionnaires were issued and 1798 of them came back with answers as to what courses these men wanted to take. First choices were as follows:

Auto mechanics	572
Managing a small business	245
Crop management and soil conservation	168
Bookkeeping and accounting	144
Electricity	133
Radio	130
Livestock Production	115
Mechanical Drawing	110
Carpentry	87
Advertising	74
Shop Mathematics	63
Foremanship and supervision	62
French	62
Salesmanship	57
Psychology	55
Blueprint Reading	55
Physical Sciences	55
Business English	49
Business Law	45
Poultry Management	44
Business Arithmetic	40
Personnel Management	36
American Social and Political History	29
Review Arithmetic	28
American Economic Problems	17
American Government	10

Half of these men had finished high school. Private Byers, a former school man, does not think that the overwhelming choice of auto mechanics means that we are to become a nation of garage workers, but is rather an indication of the American boy's traditional interest in his jalopy.

The Old Dilemma: Vocational Training or Liberal Arts? Robert T. Oliver, *School and Society*, Volume 62, No. 1606, Pp. 219-220, October 6, 1945.

In this "shorter paper" Dr. Oliver defends the liberal arts as, in the long run, the best vocational preparation for present day youth, whose "sole experience in the employment market has been with a wide choice of jobs at inflated wages. They are used to being sought after, offered premiums, and having working conditions adjusted to their convenience. It is a far cry from this situation to the consideration of a thorough and laborious preparation for even the opportunity to compete for a postwar position".

. . . "Educators realize, of course, that cultural and spiritual values can exist only where there is economic security. Students must be concerned not only with living, but also with earning the means of livelihood. Consequently the liberal-arts training serves as a doorway into the professions, such as medicine, dentistry, law, teaching, the ministry, journalism, and others.

"But the vocational value of training in liberal arts is far broader than this. In the values of personality, character, and intellect which it is designed to help develop there lie the very highest types of vocational training. In becoming a more capable man or woman, the student cannot help becoming of increased value to prospective employers. Specific vocational skills may be easily developed after employment, but there is no time then to lay a broad basis of knowledge, adaptability, and sympathetic insight into varied phases of life. The student who graduates from college without these characteristics will probably never acquire them".

The Question-Box

The first report of the Question-Box Committee appeared in the issue of the JOURNAL for October, 1945. This second and final report covers, insofar as possible, the questions which were listed by the 253 registrars who returned the Committee's first questionnaire. The answers to these questions are the results of a survey of practice or opinion in a small group of institutions thought to be fairly representative of the Association's membership. A few more than a hundred questionnaires were distributed and 66 were returned in time to be included in the results presented below.

The membership of the Question-Box Committee as appointed by President Ernest C. Miller is as follows: Mr. Homer Heaton, Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas; Miss Katherine G. Hunter, Connecticut College for Women; Sister Mary Keating, College of Saint Teresa, Winona, Minnesota; Mr. L. S. Mayer, North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering; Mr. Laurence Woodruff, University of Kansas; Mr. A. E. Ottewell, University of Alberta, Canada; and Mr. Leo M. Chamberlain, University of Kentucky, Chairman.

Question 1: Does your institution allow credit in military science, physical education, or both, for "basic" or "recruit" training in the armed services?

Answer: About 77 per cent do allow such credit, and 23 per cent do not.

Question 2: If such credit is allowed, must the veteran actually have had *basic training* (as opposed to mere service) in order to claim credit?

Answer: Forty per cent state that the veteran must have had *basic training*, 33 per cent say that mere service will suffice, and 27 per cent failed to answer.

Question 3: Would you allow proportional credit for a period of service or training less than the twelve weeks usually allotted to basic training?

Answer: About 20 per cent would allow proportional credit, 53 per cent would not, and 27 per cent did not answer the question.

Question 4: Do you make any distinction in the amount of credit granted between the person who held a commission and the one who did not?

Answer: Thirty per cent would make such a distinction, 52 per cent would not, and 18 per cent failed to answer the question.

Question 5: If a veteran is assigned credit at another accredited

school for training while in military service, and then transfers to your institution, will you accept the first evaluation or make a new one?

Answer: Twenty-seven per cent would accept the first evaluation and 68 per cent would make a new evaluation. Five per cent qualified their answers or did not reply.

Question 6: Does your institution grant a degree to a man or woman who entered military service while the number of credits completed was still slightly short of the regular graduation requirements?

Answer: Thirty per cent state that they would grant a degree under these conditions and 70 per cent say that they would not. It is probable that some of those institutions that answered in the negative have arranged for the person leaving for military service near the close of the term to receive full credit in courses in which he had passing grades. Likewise, some of those answering affirmatively probably did not actually reduce the graduation requirements, but instead allowed full credit for a shortened term. The maximum concession appears to have been a semester's work in the case of about seven institutions.

Question 7: Have you waived your senior residence requirement for the veteran?

Answer: Fifty-six per cent have waived the senior residence requirement and 35 per cent have not. Nine per cent qualified their answers or did not reply.

Question 8: If the senior residence requirement is waived, what is the minimum amount of credit which must at some time have been earned in the institution before graduation is approved?

Answer: The replies to this question vary a great deal. The range is from approximately one year of credit to as much as three years. Perhaps the question is not too important as no veteran is likely to ask an institution to grant him a degree, on waiver of the senior residence requirement, unless he has previously done a substantial amount of work at the institution.

Question 9: Does your institution allow any credit in physical education for military service?

Answer: Fifty-eight per cent state that they do and 33 per cent say they do not. About 9 per cent did not answer the question. Where credit is allowed, the practice is apparently to give as much as is covered by the required courses in the field. The range is from two quarter hours to as much as eight semester hours. It is probable that the schools allowing the veterans credit in physical education are for the most part those not having military science.

Question 10: Will your institution recognize the United States Armed Forces Institute Form 47, signed by an officer of the Army or Navy,

as valid evidence that a particular training program has been completed?

Answer: About 91 per cent answer in the affirmative. Only one institution indicated an alternative—that of requiring a certified record from the Office of the Adjutant General or from the Area Service Command.

Question 11: Will your institution make any effort, other than its customary provisions for proficiency examinations, to grant credit for technical experience in government or industrial service along the same lines that you will grant credit for military service?

Answer: Seventy per cent of the 66 institutions state that no effort will be made in this direction, 20 per cent plan to allow such credit, and 10 per cent are uncertain about the matter. Where such credit is to be allowed, it will be established on the basis of subject examinations.

Question 12: When an institution does not have ROTC, should it, in your opinion, grant credit in military science for service in the armed forces?

Answer: Fifty three per cent answered in the affirmative, 40 per cent said, "No", and about 7 per cent did not answer.

Question 13: If an institution, not having ROTC, does grant credit in military science for service in the armed forces, would you suggest that it observe the recommendation in the American Council Guide?

Answer: Eighty-five per cent state that this should be the practice. The remaining 15 per cent did not answer. The recommendation referred to appears in the Guide in Section 3, Page B-1.00, and is quoted from *Higher Education and National Defense*, Bulletin No. 69, page 2, American Council on Education.

Question 14: Should an institution of the category mentioned in the two preceding questions make any distinction between the person who has held a commission and the one who has not?

Answer: Only 17 per cent think that such a distinction should be made. Forty-four per cent believe there should be no distinction, and 39 per cent did not express an opinion.

Question 15: Are you planning to admit to your institution veterans who have not satisfied formal entrance requirements for the freshman class?

Answer: About 85 per cent state that they will admit such veterans. Fifteen per cent say they will not.

Question 16: If such admissions are approved, will you insist on evidence (examinations, interviews, etc.) that the applicant is capable of doing successful college work?

Answer: Only one institution indicated that such evidence would not be required.

Question 17: In the case of an admission of the kind mentioned in Question 15, will all deficiencies be waived immediately or will the student have to go through a trial period before he can be a regular student?

Answer: Fifty-eight per cent say that a trial will be required, 11 per cent state that all deficiencies will be waived immediately, and 31 per cent failed to answer.

Question 18: What is the length of the required trial period referred to in the preceding question?

Answer: About 27 per cent say one quarter or one semester, 47 per cent say one year, and about 15 per cent did not reply. The remaining answers were scattered or indefinite. Only one institution would require a trial period as long as two years.

Question 19: Would you deem it desirable to reduce your graduation requirements for the veterans by a certain amount (8 semester hours, for example) as an alternative to granting an equal amount of credit in military science?

Answer: Approximately 95 per cent of the 66 institutions think this would not be a desirable procedure. Only three schools, in fact, answer in the affirmative.

Question 20: Approximately what proportion of the veterans that have enrolled in your institution have elected regular degree curricula as opposed to short courses, refresher courses, etc.?

Answer: Forty-five per cent say that all veterans have elected degree curricula, 33 per cent list the proportion between 90 and 99 per cent, and 9 per cent did not answer. Of the remaining eight institutions, all except four indicate that the proportion electing degree curricula is above 70 per cent. To date at least, the number of veterans desiring short courses, refresher courses, etc., is far below the expectations of many institutions.

Question 21: In case the veteran has earned while in military service sufficient credit to complete the over-all degree requirement, but is short in his major field or in specific requirements, what will be your policy in allowing substitutions?

Answer: Only 24 per cent of the 66 institutions would characterize their policy as "strict", 74 per cent would be "fairly liberal", and a single institution would be "very liberal."

Question 22: Have you established a maximum of credit that any veteran may receive for all types of training while in service and apply on a degree?

Answer: Eighty-six per cent say that no such maximum has been established, 10 per cent state that they have a maximum, and four per cent did not answer. The maximum amounts designated by seven

institutions range from 6 to 76 semester hours. It is possible that the three institutions which mentioned from 6 to 16 semester hours were stating the amount of credit allowed for basic training rather than for all types of work. One institution mentioned 50 per cent of the graduation requirement; one, 62 semester hours; one, 60 to 90 semester hours; and one, 76 semester hours.

Question 23: Is your counseling service for veterans (including relationships with the Veterans Administration) centralized in one office?

Answer: Seventy-three per cent answer in the affirmative, and 27 per cent in the negative.

Question 24: If your counseling service for veterans has been centralized, in what office has it been placed?

Answer: About 45 per cent say that this responsibility has been assigned either to the registrar's office or to the office of the dean and registrar. Eight institutions mentioned a veteran's counselor; six, a veterans service bureau; five, the admissions office or admissions committee; and four, a special committee.

Question 25: Would you favor the Veterans Administration giving the same supervision to men under Public Law 346 as is given to those under Public Law 16?

Answer: Thirty-eight per cent answer, "Yes", 47 per cent say, "No", and 15 per cent did not say.

Question 26: Do you have a special plan for the housing of married veterans?

Answer: Seventy-six per cent have no special plan for housing married veterans, while 24 per cent do. The plans mentioned include trailer camps, FHA apartments, special apartments constructed new or built into existing dormitories, rented apartments, and housing units. The last probably refers to pre-fabricated houses rented from the government.

Question 27: In your opinion should veterans be segregated in any way from other students?

Answer: Practically all answers to the question were in the negative. The affirmative answers were qualified as follows: "In housing only", "When married", "If they enter late and need extra help."

Question 28: Are you supplying transcripts of credits for men in service on the direct requests of other colleges?

Answer: About 88 per cent of the 66 institutions do comply with such requests. When transcripts are sent under these conditions, about 65 per cent omit making a charge, and 33 per cent assess the charge against the veteran. Only one institution indicated that it charged the other college.

Question 29: Will the American Council Guide eventually include evaluations of the work offered in the post-hostilities schools in Europe and elsewhere?

Answer: Mr. George P. Tuttle, Director of the Staff which is preparing the Guide, states that such evaluations are being made, and that subscribers to the 1945 Guide will receive this material in due course.

Question 30: In computing teaching assignments in your institution, is it customary to regard two hours of laboratory work as the equivalent of one hour of recitation or lecture?

Answer: About 75 per cent say that teaching assignments are computed on this basis. Eight institutions use three laboratory hours as the equivalent of one hour of recitation, and two institutions use one and one-half hours.

Question 31: Do you use college credit to make up high school deficiencies?

Answer: About 77 per cent of the 66 institutions say that they do this, although a few pointed out that it was done very rarely. Where this practice is followed, the number of semester hours regarded as the equivalent of a high school unit ranges from two to six. Three semester hours is the amount mentioned by 16 institutions, and six semester hours by 11 colleges. Several indicated that the amount varies with the individual case.

Question 32: Do you have a system of pre-registration or pre-classification at your institution?

Answer: About 45 per cent say that they have such a system. An additional 10 per cent indicate that such a plan is contemplated.

Question 33: Would it be possible to have published in the JOURNAL a brief history of the Association and its organization?

Answer: Alfred H. Parrott and other members of the Association have spoken at the conventions on the early history of the AACR, but, as far as I have been able to ascertain, no one has written a history of the Association. I think that a proposal for such a history should be presented to the Executive Committee for consideration. Perhaps a Historian should be appointed to prepare such a history. (E. C. Miller, President of the AACR).

Question 34: Since registrars, deans, and directors of admissions are unable to divorce their activities from other fields of counseling, should not an effort be made by the AACR to effect liaison with such professional organizations as the American Psychological Association and the National Vocational Guidance Association?

Answer: A proposal to effect liaison with such professional organizations will be presented to the Executive Committee at its next meeting.

I suggest that the person who submitted this question draw up an appropriate proposal, indicating why this should be given favorable consideration by the Association. The proposal should be mailed to the President of the Association. (E. C. Miller, President of the AACR)

Question 35: Is it an established policy to hold the annual convention of the AACR at some central place in order to reduce travel distances for members?

Answer: At the meeting of the Executive Committee in April, 1945, it was voted that the President request Mr. J. A. Humphreys, present Chairman of the Committee on Local Arrangements, to act as Director of Convention Arrangements for the Association. One of Mr. Humphrey's duties is to consider the factors affecting the choice of the location of the convention, such as size of place, colleges and universities in the locality, accessibility, transportation facilities, hotel accommodations available, and rates and services in hotels. Mr. Humphreys is making a careful investigation in at least a dozen cities located in various sections of the United States and will report to the Executive Committee. During the war years the annual convention was held in Chicago primarily because of the transportation facilities and hotel accommodations seemed to be better in that city than elsewhere. I hope that in time we shall be able to return to our rotation system of selecting convention cities. (E. C. Miller, President of the AACR)

Question 36: How could one secure bound copies of the JOURNAL and what copies are available?

Answer: A few libraries have complete bound sets of the JOURNAL, and one is in the possession of the Editor. Back numbers of many of the issues are obtainable at 50¢ each for members, \$1.00 for non-members, of the Association. However, many back numbers are out of print and unobtainable. The Editor will be glad to answer inquiries about specific numbers. A few copies of the "Re-edited *Proceedings* of the Association, 1910-1917" are still available from the Editor at 10¢ each.

Reported to Us

Southern Junior College, Collegedale, Tennessee, was advanced to senior college standing in April, 1944, and the name was changed to Southern Missionary College. Miss Ruby E. Lea is Registrar.

Miss Frances Van Etten has succeeded Miss Charlotte Marshall as Registrar of the New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair.

Rolfe Lanier Hunt assumed office in October as Editor of the *Phi Delta Kappan*, monthly publication of the Phi Delta Kappa Society.

E. J. Howell, formerly Registrar of Texas A. and M., is now Dean of John Tarleton Agricultural College at Stephenville, Texas. Mr. Howell was elected President of the AACR in 1941, but resigned to go into military service. His successor at Texas A. and M. is H. L. Heaton.

The Trustees of Miami University have announced the appointment as President of Dr. Ernest H. Hahne, Professor of Economics at Northwestern University. Dr. Hahne will assume his new duties early in the second semester. He succeeds Dr. Alfred H. Upham, who died last February.

The George Banta Publishing Co., which has published this JOURNAL for many years, has made a notable record of war service. 53 titles were published for training purposes and instruction in the armed forces. For the Navy, the company published 5,092,998 books. Somebody counted the pages and said there were 561,671,098,434 of them. This represents 3400 tons of paper—enough to fill a freight train one mile long. For the USAFI, the Banta Co. issued 4,728,204 books, which required 1,500 tons of paper, amounting to 56 carloads, which would make a train $\frac{1}{2}$ mile long. All this was achieved without interruption or serious delay in the publication of the many learned journals which the company publishes, and with a total of 155 Banta employees, (32% of the staff), in military service.

Miss Edith Cockins is serving as National Housing Chairman of the Kappa Alpha Theta Sorority. Her work will involve supervision of planning and financing of new chapter houses, and will entail considerable travel.

Dr. George S. Beery has been appointed Dean of Students at Drake University.

John E. Kramer, who has been Registrar of the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy and Science since 1931, has now added to his duties those of Assistant to the President.

Dr. John H. Furbay, F.R.G.S., formerly Senior Specialist, U. S. Office of Education, has been named Director of Air-Age Education, Transcontinental and Western Airlines, Inc.

Roy W. Bixler, who was Editor of the JOURNAL from 1932 to 1934, has recently been appointed a Regional Chief in the Division of Surplus

Property Utilization of the U. S. Office of Education, with responsibility for supervision of operations in seven states in the middle west. He has been with the Office of Education since October, 1942, first as a Field Representative in the Student War Loans Program, then as Head of Research and Statistics for the E.S.M.W.T. Program, and later as Acting Director of the Student War Loans Program.

G. G. Starr, formerly Dean of Instruction at Pfeiffer Junior College, Misenheimer, North Carolina, is now Registrar and Bursar at Scarritt College for Christian Workers at Nashville, Tennessee. His predecessor at Scarritt, Dr. J. M. Batten, is now at Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston, Illinois.

The JOURNAL regrets to learn of the death on November 24 of Mrs. Helen Waldo Mitchell, wife of Dr. J. Pierce Mitchell, Registrar Emeritus at Stanford University. Mrs. Mitchell died as the result of injuries received when she was struck by an automobile as she crossed the street in front of her home. The sympathies of the entire Association will go to her husband, whom we have known and honored for so long.

At its last convention the AACR took delight in paying special tribute to our friend and mentor, "Tom" Wilson. The announcement of his death, which occurred on October 25, will be received with profound regret by his host of friends in the Association. The following item is reprinted from the Charlotte, North Carolina, *Observer*:

CHAPEL HILL, Oct. 25.—(AP)—Dr. Thomas James Wilson, Jr., who had been connected with the University of North Carolina faculty for almost half a century and who had served as a professor, registrar, dean of admissions, and faculty secretary, died at his home here at 1:30 o'clock this morning. He had been in poor health for several years.

Funeral services will be held sometime Saturday.

Well known and greatly beloved by thousands of University alumni, Dr. Wilson would have been 72 years old next January. He had been a member of the faculty for 46 years.

Dr. Wilson retired from active duty as dean of admissions in 1942 because of

failing health, but had continued to serve as advisory dean of admissions and as editor of the University records and University archivist.

He was not only widely known to students and alumni as registrar and dean of admissions, but after he stopped teaching he remained in close contact with the students through the Phi Beta Kappa scholarship fraternity. He served from 1894, when the local chapter was organized, until his death as corresponding secretary-treasurer of the fraternity. He was the first president of Alpha Theta Phi from which the present Phi Beta Kappa chapter was formed.

Dr. Wilson had an amazing memory. While registrar, it is said, he was able to call any student by name even though he had seen the youngster only when he registered him.

TAUGHT IN CHARLOTTE

A native of Hillsboro, North Carolina, Dr. Wilson received his B.A. degree in the University in 1894, his master's degree in 1896, and his Ph.D. in 1898. The following year he taught in the Charlotte schools, it being said at the time that he was the first man with a Ph.D. degree to teach in a North Carolina graded school. Dr. Wilson taught the ninth grade, and Alexander Graham, father of President Frank P. Graham, was superintendent.

He returned to Chapel Hill in 1899 to teach Latin and Greek, and was named associate professor in 1902. In 1903 and 1906 he did graduate work in the University of Chicago, and in 1908 he was appointed registrar, but he continued to teach until 1915. He was named dean of admissions in 1930 and secretary of the faculty in 1934.

As registrar and dean of admissions, "Dr. Tommie," as he was affectionately known, attained high rank in his field. He was author of a number of articles on the work of registrars and registration procedure. He served as president of the American association of collegiate registrars and as president of the North Carolina association of registrars.

It was back in Dr. Harry Woodburn Chase's time as president of the University that a movement was started among North Carolina colleges to unify the procedure of admitting students. President Chase and the late President W. P. Few of Duke University called a meeting for the purpose of organizing the admission officers of the various colleges. Thus, the North Carolina branch of the American association of Collegiate Registrars was formed. It also marked the beginning of an organized effort on the part of the State Department of Public Instruction looking toward the designation of regular accredited schools. Prior to that time the matter of evaluating high school units for college entrance had been in rather chaotic condition.

The son of Thomas James Wilson and Margaret Douglas (Ross) Wilson, Dr. Wilson was married to the former Miss Lorena Frank Pickard of Chapel Hill, who died several years ago. He is survived by four sons, Dr. Thomas J. Wilson, III, of New York, college editor of Reynal and Hitchcock, publishers, now a lieutenant commander in the Navy; Lt. Comdr. Peter P. Wilson of Winston-Salem, now on the West coast; Marvin P. Wilson, a lawyer of Edenton, and Walter W. Wilson, in the cotton mill business in Graniteville, South Carolina, and several grandchildren.

Expansion of Yeshiva College into a University was announced early in December. The New York State Board of Regents had previously authorized the change, and granted the right to confer six additional higher degrees. Yeshiva thus becomes the first University in the long

history of the Jewish people to be established outside of the Holy Land. Dr. Samuel Belkin, President, announced that in making this forward step, Yeshiva "hopes to make its unique contribution to the cultural pluralities of the great democratic way of life."

The University of Tampa has successfully completed a campaign for \$50,000 for property improvements and new equipment. Dr. E. C. Nance became President of the University on V-E Day, when he was released from service as an army chaplain.

The National Conference of Christians and Jews announces the 13th annual observance of national Brotherhood Week to occur February 17-24, 1946. The theme is: "In Peace as in War—Teamwork". Program aids for use in schools and colleges may be secured by writing to the National Conference of Christians and Jews, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, New York. Materials are adapted to age levels in the schools. Plays, comics, posters, book lists and other types of literature are available.

A graphic guide designed to point up for the benefit of discharged Navy and Coast Guard veterans the relationship between civilian employment and skills they acquired through the ratings they held in the service has been published by the B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, national occupational research agency, in the form of a two-color wall chart, 38 by 42 inches, entitled "What You Can Do With Your Navy Training As A Civilian".

Second in a series of post-war research and publication projects by B'nai B'rith's Vocational Service Bureau, the chart is a companion piece to an earlier chart, "What You Can Do With Your Army Training As A Civilian". Like the first chart, over 40,000 copies of which have been distributed by the Army and other government agencies where there are American troops, and by other public and civic agencies engaged in service to veterans, "What You Can Do With Your Navy Training As A Civilian" is being made available by B'nai B'rith, national Jewish service organization, as a public service to all groups rendering professional services to war veterans.

Prepared by the B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau in co-operation with the Division of Training and Occupational Analysis of the United States Department of Labor and the Navy Department, the chart lists 54 of the most important Navy and Coast Guard ratings. Next to each rating are indicated the representative related civilian jobs which the Navy and Coast Guard veteran may be able to enter with little or no additional training, with more training, or with extensive training.

Association of Indiana College Registrars

The annual meeting of the Association of Indiana College Registrars convened November 19, 1945, at the University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Indiana, with the Rev. James W. Connerton, C.S.C., president of the Association, presiding.

The general theme of the meeting concerned the place of Liberal Arts in the college and university curricula. The opening paper was presented by Dr. Milton E. Kraft, Dean of Earlham College. An Open Forum and Round Table Panel on "The Curricular Content of a Liberal Arts Course" was directed by A. F. Scribner, Registrar at Valparaiso University, acting as chairman. The discussion of questions previously submitted by members of the Association was concerned chiefly with the policy of admitting students without high-school diplomas, and the usefulness of "A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services" in evaluating military experience.

At the luncheon, the Very Rev. J. Hugh O'Donnell, C.S.C., President of the University of Notre Dame, extended a formal welcome to the members of the Association. A tour of the campus was followed by a business session at which the names of the new officers were announced. Officers elected were: President, Dr. Paul Bender, Registrar at Goshen College, and Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Garnet Trullender, Associate Registrar at Ball State Teachers College.

The afternoon's Round Table discussion was preceded by a Report on recent actions of the Executive Committee of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars made by Ernest C. Miller, National President. C. R. Maxam, Registrar at Butler University, led the discussion on the "Spiritual Content of Liberal Arts." Panel leaders were: R. B. Stone, Registrar at Purdue University, C. L. Murray, Registrar at Ball State Teachers College, and Paul Bender, Registrar at Goshen College.

(REV.) C. G. KERN, C.P.P.S.

Association of Ohio College Registrars

The Association of Ohio College Registrars met at Toledo on October 11 and 12, with its president, W. E. Nudd of Case School of Applied Science, presiding. 66 members and guests, representing 36 institutions, were present.

The Thursday morning meeting at the Commodore Perry Hotel, was addressed by Dr. Francis J. Brown, of the American Council on Education, on *Higher Education in the Post-War Period*, (see pp. 183-189 *infra*); and by Allen C. Conger of Ohio Wesleyan University on *The Increasing Use of Visual Aids, and the Equipment Available*. (Editor's note: He would be *infra* too, but he didn't come across with his paper.)

Following the morning meeting the Association adjourned to the University of Toledo for luncheon, followed by a meeting at the Student Union. This meeting was addressed by George P. Tuttle, of the University of Illinois, and by representatives of the Northern Ohio office of the Veterans Bureau. Under the capable chairmanship of E. T. Downer, of Western Reserve, there ensued a lively and very enlightening discussion of the problems involved in the admission of veterans and the evaluation of their credits. Following this discussion, the Association was entertained at a tea given by the Home Economics Department.

The dinner session was held at the Commodore Perry, and was addressed by President Philip Nash, of the University of Toledo, who spoke on *The Control of Atomic Power*.

Friday morning's meeting was given over to a question-box and open forum, followed by a talk by Miss Edith Cockins, Registrar Emeritus of Ohio State, who spoke on *The Opportunities and Responsibilities of College Registrars*.

Officers elected for the ensuing year were: President, Stuart McGowan, Kenyon College; Vice-President, Lawrence C. Underwood, Hiram College; Secretary-Treasurer, Helen Burgoyne, University of Cincinnati.

Thirteenth Annual Conference of the Illinois Association of Junior Colleges

On November 17, 1945, the Illinois Association of Junior Colleges held its thirteenth annual conference at Lyons Township Junior College in LaGrange, Illinois. At the general session, presided over by the Association's president, Albert Fertsch, Dean of Gary Junior College, Dean Clarence H. Faust of the College of the University of Chicago delivered an address on the needed emphasis on general, or liberal, education and the widespread mistakes arising from "vocationalism" in junior colleges. Students of Lyons Township Junior College furnished pleasing musical numbers.

After the general session the large audience, faculty members and students, held small-group conferences. Students met in nine groups, each one being concerned with a different student activity. Administrators and faculty members gathered in fourteen groups, organized according to academic departments.

Mr. Walter S. Pope, Dean of J. Sterling Morton Junior College of Cicero, Illinois, acted as secretary for the Association.

J. A. HUMPHREYS

West Virginia Association of Collegiate Registrars

The West Virginia Association of Collegiate Registrars met in Clarksburg, October 25, 26, and 27, 1945. The meeting was called at the request

of President Williams of Marshall College, who is also President of the Association of the University and State College Presidents, to consider the problems of admission and re-admission of veterans to the colleges in West Virginia. All the colleges in West Virginia were represented at the Clarksburg meeting with the exception of the Greenbrier Military College of Lewisburg, the Greenbrier College of Lewisburg, Davis-Elkins College of Elkins, and West Virginia Wesleyan College, Buckhannon. The State Department of Education was represented by Miss Genevieve Starcher, and the State Board of Education by Mr. Herbert K. Baer. The West Virginia Association of High School Principals was represented by Mr. W. C. Whaley, Principal of East Fairmont High School and Secretary-Treasurer of the Association; and the County Superintendents' Association was represented by its president, Mr. J. J. Straight, Superintendent of the Marion County Schools.

The paper delivered before the Association of the University and State College Presidents at Charleston, October 3, by Mr. Luther E. Bledsoe, Registrar of Marshall College, became the agenda of the Clarksburg meeting; and the recommendations herein contained (with the exception of Number 1) follow the questions and problems presented at that time.

Early in the discussions at Clarksburg, it became apparent that some definition of "student" would be necessary, as the question arose in connection with each recommendation as to whether the same right, privilege, or consideration would be granted civilian students whose education was interrupted by service in war or related industries. It was the consensus of the group that a definition of student was necessary before much progress could be made. The following definition was adopted by the Association and should be applied to the recommendations which follow:

Definition of Student

RECOMMENDATION NO. 1:

"A student is a person within the high school or college age range who has been demobilized, displaced, or separated from an assignment or duty since September 16, 1940. The termination date will be set when conditions warrant."

Agenda

What should be the policy of state colleges in the admission of the non-high school graduate?

RECOMMENDATION NO. 2:

"It is recommended that non-high school graduates be not denied higher educational opportunities. If a student, in accordance with our definition adopted and contained in Recommendation No. 1 above, can qualify by a high school diploma obtained in part by service credit or show by competence on the General Educational Development Tests (High School Level) that he is qualified for admission to higher institutions of learning, he should be admitted to the institu-

tion of his choice as now constituted. If the non-high school graduate cannot qualify under the standards defined above, institutions of higher learning should modify their standards or introduce new curricula, thus providing a type of program suitable to the needs of all who desire to continue their educational advancement."

Agenda

What minimum standard score should be adopted by West Virginia Colleges in granting college credit on the Tests of General Education Development, College Level?

RECOMMENDATION NO. 3:

"It was agreed that the following minimum standard scores be adopted by West Virginia institutions for the General Educational Development Tests (College Level):

Test I, Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression, minimum score 50; Test II, Interpretation of Reading Material in the Social Studies, minimum score 55; Test III, Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Natural Sciences, minimum score 57; Test IV, Interpretation of Literary Materials, minimum score, 53."

Agenda

What policy should be adopted by West Virginia Colleges concerning high school graduates with service training and former college students returning with service training?

RECOMMENDATION NO. 4:

"It is recommended by the group that the eight (8) semester hours of credit which may be allowed for basic military training be classified as lower division general electives in Physical Education, or in meeting a maximum of eight (8) semester hours in requirements in the following group of courses: Health Education, 2 hours; First Aid, 2 hours; Recreational Activities, 4 hours, and Team Sports, 4 hours."

RECOMMENDATION NO. 5:

"It is recommended that the maximum amount of credit which may be allowed for educational experience in the Armed Forces, or elsewhere, beyond basic military training, be determined by the American Council on Education Guide, and that courses not covered by this Guide be evaluated by the institution and accepted by examinations conducted by the institution or by the USAFI."

Agenda

Former students completing or approximately completing required number of hours for graduation while in service.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 6:

"It is recommended that a student completing institutional requirements for graduation may be graduated from an institution provided at least 32 semester hours of academic work was completed at the institution from which the student desires graduation."

Agenda

At the present time, many if not all colleges within the state are admitting veterans within the semester, or are making plans to do

so. It was the consensus of the Clarksburg meeting that each institution should admit veterans during the semester under an organized program of placement which would work to the advantage of the veteran rather than against him. In view of the importance of this problem, the college presidents are requested to consider seriously the following recommendation:

RECOMMENDATION NO. 7:

"It is recommended that there be established counselling services, testing services, and instructors for review or refresher, and/or tutorial courses or special programs to assist veterans who desire to enter late, and that a contract be negotiated with the Veterans Administration to pay the cost of such services."

Virginia Association of Collegiate Registrars

The Virginia Association of Collegiate Registrars met in the Lee Room of the Hotel John Marshall in Richmond on Wednesday, November 21, 1945. In the morning session Registrar Helen M. Frank of Madison College, discussed *Trends in Admission Policies in Virginia Colleges and Universities*. Dean C. P. Miles of the Virginia Polytechnical Institute discussed *Changes in Admission Requirements for Veterans. Problems of Teacher Certification in Virginia* was presented by Dr. J. L. Blair Buck, Director of Higher Education and Teacher Certification.

The afternoon was devoted to problems of adjusting college freshman courses to make provisions for students with different degrees of high school preparation. Registrar M. J. McNeal of Randolph-Macon College discussed the problem so far as it affects the work in mathematics. Registrar R. N. Latture of Washington and Lee University discussed the problem so far as the modern language is concerned.

Kentucky Association of College Registrars, October 25

The Kentucky Association of College Registrars met at the University of Kentucky. Dean James H. Hewlett of Centre College presided. The following topics were discussed: *High school credit for educational experiences in the armed services* by Registrar E. H. Canon, Western State Teachers College; *What the Colleges are Doing with the American Council Guide and the Educational Development Tests of the U.S.A.F.I.*, by Miss Maple Moores, University of Kentucky.

Dean Leo Chamberlain of the University of Kentucky conducted a question box period. Dean C. R. Wimmer of Union College presented a report on Enrollments of Veterans in Kentucky Colleges.

Mr. E. G. Robbins brought a message from the Veterans Administration.

Middle States Association of Collegiate Registrars

The Middle States Association of Collegiate Registrars held its meeting in New York City in connection with the annual meeting of the Middle

States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, on Saturday, November 24, 1945. John M. Daniels, Registrar of Carnegie Institute of Technology and President of Middle States Association of Collegiate Registrars presided. The general topic of the meeting was *New State Department Procedures Affecting Secondary Schools and Admissions to Colleges*. The *Pennsylvania Plan* was discussed by Dr. G. Franklin Stover, Director of Secondary Education Evaluation of the Department of Public Instruction of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, and *The New York Plan* was presented by Dr. John S. Allen, Director of the Division of Higher Education, New York State Education Department.

The afternoon session was devoted to the topic of *The Veteran in College*. Registrar Elwood C. Kastner, of New York University discussed *The College and the Veteran*. Mr. David E. Hetzel, Chief, Registration Subdivision, New York Regional Office, Veterans Administration discussed *The Veterans Administration and the College*.

Registrar William S. Hoffman of Pennsylvania State College read a paper on *The Achievement of the Veteran in College*.

The 1946 Convention

Atlanta, Georgia, has been chosen by vote of the executive committee of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars as the place of our 1946 convention, to be held beginning the evening of April 22 and closing early afternoon of the 25th. Our headquarters will be the Atlanta-Biltmore. This decision was reached after consideration of the situations in twelve cities, suggested by various persons. Mr. J. Anthony Humphreys, director of convention arrangements, made a painstaking investigation of these cities and their hotels, and presented recommendations.

It has been a difficult task to find a city with the right kind of hotels which could give us a definite promise of available facilities. All desirable hotels in cities of any size have more business than they can handle. In some places the facilities are still under control of the armed services and will be for some time. In other cities the hotels are so busy, even after the close of hostilities, that they cannot give a guarantee now of space for next spring. Some cities suggested that we plan to come to them in 1947. Then, too, in some instances the dates preferred by our Association were not available.

For a number of reasons Atlanta is a highly desirable place to hold our convention in 1946: The Atlanta-Biltmore, our headquarters and meeting place, gave us definite commitment now for space at the time we need it next spring; this hotel is fine, modern one, the best in Atlanta; this city has a population of more than 300,000; the weather in Atlanta next April should be very attractive; there are many points of historical interest in and near the city; transportation connections are good; a

number of educational institutions are located in and near Atlanta; the Association has not held a convention there since 1927, and not in that part of the country for some time.

Like all other hotels in the cities investigated, the Atlanta-Biltmore cannot house under its roof all of our members who attend the convention. Plenty of space is available, however, in nearby hotels, the farthest one being within five minutes' bus ride. As in other cities at present, no single rooms will be available. Those who attend will have to be willing to share twin-bed rooms with other members.

More detailed information concerning the convention and method of securing hotel room reservations will be mailed to our membership in January or February. It will be necessary that those who wish to attend the convention place their room reservations promptly upon receipt of the proper card.

E. C. MILLER, *President*

For Consideration at the Atlanta Convention

The Executive Committee, from its meeting on April 20, 1945, offers for your consideration the following proposed change in the by-laws which are to be presented to you for action at the next meeting of the Association:

TO MAKE THE CHAIRMAN OF THE REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS COMMITTEE A MEMBER OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The Executive Committee felt that our administrative procedure should provide for a closer co-ordination and control of the activities of the Regional Associations and the National Association. The Executive Committee, therefore, recommends that the Association change Article IV, Section 2, of the Constitution so as to make the Chairman of the Regional Associations Committee a member of the Executive Committee.

Article IV, Section 2, of the Constitution would then read as follows:

"The officers named in Section 1, together with the immediate past president, the chairman of the Committee on Special Projects, and the chairman of the Committee on Regional Associations, shall constitute an Executive Committee, with power to fix the time and place of the next annual meeting as provided in the by-laws, to assist the president in arranging the program, and to make other necessary arrangements."

Respectfully submitted,

R. F. Thomason, *Secretary*

Directory of Regional Associations

(Changes should be reported promptly to the Regional Associations Editor)

ALABAMA COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS ASSOCIATION

President, J. F. Glazner, Jacksonville State Teachers College, Jacksonville
Secretary-Treasurer, Eva Wilson, University of Alabama, University

ARKANSAS ASSOCIATION OF REGISTRARS

President, G. Y. Short, Arkansas State Teachers College, Conway
Secretary, Mrs. Clarine Longstreth, Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock

CHICAGO CONFERENCE OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, A. F. Scribner, Valparaiso University, Valparaiso, Indiana
Secretary-Treasurer, Velma Davis, University of Illinois, Medical School, Chicago

COLORADO-WYOMING ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Marjorie Cutler, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado
Secretary-Treasurer, Mrs. Dorothy Miller, Trinidad Junior College, Trinidad, Colorado

ILLINOIS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Donald Stewart, Roosevelt College, Chicago
Secretary-Treasurer, Mrs. Gretchen Happ, The Principa, Elsh

ASSOCIATION OF INDIANA COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Paul Bender, Goshen College
Secretary-Treasurer, Garnett Trullender, Ball State Teachers College

KANSAS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Laurence Woodruff, University of Kansas, Lawrence
Secretary, Sister Ann Elizabeth, The Saint Mary College, Xavier

KENTUCKY ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Dean James Howell Hewlett, Centre College, Danville
Secretary-Treasurer, Jessie Wilson, University of Kentucky, Lexington

LOUISIANA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Carmel V. Discon, Loyola University, New Orleans

MICHIGAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, L. L. Hanawalt, Wayne University, Detroit
Secretary, Florence Donahue, University of Detroit

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, J. M. Daniels, Carnegie Inst. of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Secretary-Treasurer, Margaret Vanderzee, Wilson College, Chambersburg, Pennsylvania

MISSISSIPPI ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Mary Pulley, Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg
Secretary, Annie McBride, Belhaven College, Jackson

MISSOURI ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Rev. J. J. Higgins, S. J., Rockhurst College, Kansas City
Secretary, Lonzo Jones, Central Missouri State Teachers College, Warrensburg

NEBRASKA BRANCH AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, G. W. Rosenlof, University of Nebraska, Lincoln
NORTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS
President, H. R. Eggers, Appalachian State Teachers College, Boone

Secretary-Treasurer, Annette McNeely, Salem College, Winston-Salem

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, John M. Bly, St. Olaf College, Northfield, Minn.

Secretary-Treasurer, A. H. Parratt, North Dakota Agricultural College, Fargo, N.D.

ASSOCIATION OF OHIO COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, S. R. McGowen, Kenyon College, Gambier

Secretary-Treasurer, Helen Burgoyne, University of Cincinnati

OKLAHOMA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, George Wadsack, University of Oklahoma, Norman

Secretary, Gladys Meanor, Northern Oklahoma Junior College, Tonkawa

PACIFIC COAST ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Douglas V. McClane, Whitman College, Walla Walla, Washington

Secretary, Margaret Maple, Pomona College, Claremont, California

SOUTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Alice Peck, Converse College, Spartanburg

Secretary, Elizabeth Tribble, Anderson College, Anderson

SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Lloyd W. Chapin, Georgia School of Technology, Atlanta

TENNESSEE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, J. Ridley Stroop, David Lipscomb College, Nashville

TEXAS ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, J. T. Haney, Texas College of Mines, El Paso

Secretary-Treasurer, Celeste Kitchen, Lamar College, Beaumont

UTAH ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

Secretary, Jeanne M. Home, University of Utah, Salt Lake City

VIRGINIA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, O. W. Wake, Lynchburg College, Lynchburg

Secretary, Marguerite Hillhouse, Mary Baldwin College, Staunton

WEST VIRGINIA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, J. Everett Long, West Virginia University, Morgantown

Secretary, S. L. McGraw, Concord College, Athens

WISCONSIN ASSOCIATION OF REGISTRARS

President, E. H. Schreiber, State Teachers College, Superior

Secretary, Gertrude M. O'Brien, Stout Institute, Menomonie

Employment Service

Notices must be accompanied by a remittance in full in favor of *The American Association of Collegiate Registrars* and should be sent to the Editor in care of the *Office of the Registrar, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio*.

Notices will be inserted in the order of their receipt.

Rates: For four insertions, limited to not more than fifty words, including the address, two dollars. Additional insertions at the regular rate. Extra space will be charged at the rate of five cents a word.

In making this page available to those seeking personnel and to those seeking employment, the Association expects that at least some reply will be made to all those answering announcements. The Association assumes no obligation as to qualifications of prospective employees or responsibility of employers.

POSITION WANTED:—Young lady desires position as Registrar, Assistant Registrar, combined or not with teaching commercial subjects. B.S. degree. M.A. degree in Business Administration. Teaching experience. Address E, care Editor. (3)

ADVANCEMENT WANTED:—Man, 42, Ph.D. in Psychology, now Professor of Psychology, Personnel Officer, Chairman of Admissions Committee in Junior College wants Senior College position as Personnel or Guidance Officer, Registrar, Instructor in Psychology, Education, or Guidance, etc. Broad experience as high school teacher and guidance counsellor. Address ES, care Editor (2)

ADVANCEMENT WANTED:—Man, Ph.D., 34, married, two children. Successful college professor of biological sciences. Desires change to administrative post, either in college or university. Reply J.B.F., care Editor. (2)

ADVANCEMENT WANTED:—Woman interested in position as Assistant Registrar. A.B. degree; graduate study. Has had experience in Registrar's and Admissions work. Reply F, care Editor. (1)

RECONVERSION WANTED:—Army major, 50, M.A. in Sociology and additional graduate work in Philosophy and Psychology. Twelve years as assistant registrar of large midwest university preceded ten years as professor of social science in small college. Completing military service as Registrar of Army University overseas. Protestant. Address C, care Editor. (1)

ASSISTANT REGISTRAR WANTED:—Young lady interested in at least several years' employment, college graduate, stenographic training and some experience in college records work desirable, accuracy and dependability essential. Technical college, desirable working conditions. Location midwest. Address U., care Editor. (1)

ADVANCEMENT WANTED:—Man, A.M., 36, married, two children. Successful college professor of French, three years' experience as registrar, two as chairman of music department. Desires position as registrar or professor of French or combination in larger college or university. Protestant. Reply W.G.W., care Editor. (1)

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